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Adults with Intellectual Disabilities with and without Anxiety Disorder: The Zeigarnik Effect Paradigm Revisited

Anastasia Alevriadou

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Anastasia Alevriadou

Department of Early Childhood Education, University of Western Macedonia, Florina, Greece
Email: alevriadou@uowm.gr

Abstract

Zeigarnik effect refers to the phenomenon whereby "people will recall interrupted tasks much better than completed ones." The present study explored the relationship between Zeigarnik effect and anxiety disorder in 44 young adults with intellectual disabilities. The participants were segregated into "anxious" and "non-anxious" groups. The Glasgow Anxiety Scale for people with an Intellectual Disability (Mindham & Espie, 2003) and a series of 20 brief tasks (similar to the concept of Zeigarnik's work) were administered. The results revealed that only "non-anxious" participants exhibited the selective recall pattern. It was hypothesized that interrupted activities created negative performance expectations, causing cognitive distress. It was assumed that the fear of failure, nervousness and physical discomfort, which are fundamental parts of anxiety, were particularly threatening to "anxious" participants, resulting in selective forgetting or selective storage of solutions. The findings are discussed emphasizing the role of psychopathological factors in the performance of individuals with intellectual disabilities.
Keywords: Intellectual Disabilities, Zeigarnik Effect, Psychopathology, Anxiety Disorder, Glasgow Anxiety Scale.

Theory

Anxiety disorders are common in the general population. 4.4% of the adult population have symptoms of a generalized anxiety disorder, 1.8% have been reported for phobias and 0.7% for panic disorders (Beck & Emery, 1985; Jaspers, 1997). Anxiety is a normal adaptive response to stress or threat. However, when the level of anxiety exceeds the reality of the threat or outlasts the duration of the threat, the response becomes pathological. Anxiety is a common symptom of a number of disorders. It triggers a spiral of autonomic and psychological overactivity that produce frightening symptoms, subsequently exacerbating the initial experience of anxiety, worry and apprehension (Sullivan et al., 1999). According to ICD-10 criteria (World Health Organization, 1994), anxiety disorders include one or more of the following: a) excessively distressed if separated from familiar person, b) distressed about being alone, c) fears about

particular things or situations (e.g., the dark or insects).

Intellectual disabilities (ID) affect approximately 1% to 3% of the population in developed countries (Hodapp, Burack, & Zigler, 1990). It is generally accepted that the rate of behavioral and emotional problems in people with ID exceeds that of the general population (Borthwick-Duffy, 1994; Dekker et al., 2002; Dykens, 1998; Einfeld & Tonge, 1996).

Anxiety rates have been found to be significantly higher in ID than in typically developing (TD) populations (e.g. Emerson, 2003; Emerson & Hatton, 2007). Individuals who have mild ID with clinically significant problems of anxiety have been found to express their distress in a similar fashion to their non-disabled peers. This includes somatic symptoms, and cognitive and behavioral elements such as a sense of helplessness, fear of failure, loss of enjoyment and withdrawal from activities (Mindham & Espie, 2003). Given a prevalence of anxiety disorders amongst people with ID of around 5-10% (Borthwick-Duffy, 1994; Deb et al., 2001), and the fact that anxiety disorders play a significant role in cognitive outcomes, there is an outstanding need to study these parameters.

Young people with ID tend to attribute their anxiety and their emotional distress to a wide range of factors, mostly environmental in nature, which can be grouped into four different categories: a) stressful life events, b) physical/ medical conditions, c) transition to adulthood and d) social isolation (Stalker et al., 2011).

On the other hand, Lewin (1939), father of modern social psychology, argued that beginning an integrated activity of any kind creates a "tension", which continues after the overt activity has been interrupted and persists after that particular activity is finished. Thus, if the tension is prevented from discharging, the individual remains in a state of disequilibrium.

Many processes presumably sustain interest in a goal when it is left unfinished. Automatic processes continue to seek and process goal relevant information and to watch for opportunities to resume pursuit of the goal (Förster, Liberman & Higgins, 2005; Rothermund, 2003). People also ruminate about goals they have not fulfilled so as to reevaluate how best to pursue them (Martin & Tesser, 2006). Thus, multiple processes push a person toward focusing on an unfulfilled goal even while the person may attempt to move on to other tasks (Smallwood & Schooler, 2006). This theoretical formulation found empirical support in the many studies of one of Lewin's students, Zeigarnik (1939/1965). Zeigarnik's research has led to the development of the well-known Zeigarnik effect: "people will recall interrupted tasks much better than finished ones."

Specifically, Zeigarnik (1939/1965) administered a series of 20 brief, simple tasks to her participants (e.g., making words from letters, writing names of cities beginning with the letter L, and the like). Half of the tasks were completed by the participants; however, the remaining tasks, spread throughout the series, were interrupted without providing any opportunity for resumption. Immediately following the completion of the series, the participants were required to recall as many of the subjects as possible. The result was that the percentage of interrupted tasks recalled was significantly higher than the percentage of completed tasks recalled (68% vs 43%). Marrow (1938) demonstrated that it is the experience of failing to reach a goal standard that is associated with increased recall, and not the interruption or incompleteness of a task per se: Recall was better for noninterrupted tasks when participants were told that a task was terminated as soon as the experimenter was satisfied with their performance—that is, when non-interruption indicated failure to reach a given performance standard.

House and McIntosh (2000) studied the Zeigarnik effect in a sample of adults with

moderate and mild ID. They found that there was a significant difference in the recall of uncompleted versus completed tasks, thus establishing the Zeigarnik effect in that population.

Subsequent research with the Zeigarnik paradigm revealed, however, that enhanced recall of unfinished tasks is not a robust effect (Butterfield, 1964; VanBergen, 1968). In some studies, even an "inverse" Zeigarnik effect was found—that is, recall was better for successfully completed tasks (Holmes, 1990). This instability of the Zeigarnik effect was sometimes attributed to the influence of psychological factors on recall: Participants might want to create a favorable impression of themselves by trying to recall successful tasks. This explanation was supported by the finding that a reversed Zeigarnik effect was observed mainly under conditions of "high" task importance and when there was a "high" involvement of psychological/motivational factors (Greenwald, 1982; Holmes, 1990).

To sum up, interrupted tasks are better recalled than completed ones. This seems to be most pronounced in participants without fear of failure and lack of serious stressful experiences. On the contrary, participants who showed a sense of helplessness and fear of failure sometimes remembered more completed tasks than interrupted tasks (Alevriadou, 2010; Moot, Teevan, & Greenfeld, 1988). This unexpected decreasing tendency of interrupted tasks by participants with fear of failure was maybe influenced by psychological factors such as anxiety, worry, apprehension and stressful experiences.

Previous work has shown that Zeigarnik effect might be influenced by cognitive and psychological (personality) factors. For example, Masicampo and Baumeister (2011), found that those who simply tend to stick with their goals through completion, may have also have difficult time transitioning from one unfinished task to a new one, particularly when the latter is dependent on executive functions. On the other hand, Kuhl and Helle (1986) have found that clinically depressed people may be especially susceptible to interference from unfulfilled goals.

The present study attempted a conceptual replication of the Zeigarnik effect in a sample of young adults with ID of "high" and "low" anxiety. It was expected that individuals with ID would show a similar pattern of behavior like that of persons without ID. Specifically, an absence of anxiety disorder would lead to better recall for uncompleted or unsolved tasks-the usual Zeigarnik effect-whereas a prominent anxiety would result in a reversed Zeigarnik effect.

Method
Participants
The sample of the study consisted of 44 young adults with ID. There were 32 females (77.27%), whose average age was 19.76 years (SD=1.74) and 12 males (22.73%), whose average age was 19.49 years (SD=1.93). All participants had been previously diagnosed as having ID by clinic personnel using the American Association on Mental Retardation (AAMR) diagnostic criteria (Luckasson et al., 2002). They were all attending training programs at Vocational Rehabilitation Centers in North Greece, and none were living in institutional settings. They had all mild ID, according to the Test of Non-Verbal Intelligence (TONI-3) (Brown et al., 1997) (Mean IQ=65, SD=3.45). The participants were native speakers of Greek origin. Furthermore, all of them had sufficient ability to communicate verbally in day-to-day interaction. Finally, none of them had sensory impairments and motor disabilities.

The participants were segregated into "anxious" (N=22, 16 females and 6 males) and "non-anxious" (N=22, 16 females and 6 males) groups. Participants from the "anxious" group

were identified by certified clinical psychologists and psychiatrists of the National Health Service of Greece, while some of them were being recruited through private practice. The "anxious" group met ICD-10 criteria (World Health Organization, 1994): Generalized Anxiety Disorder (n = 17), Panic Disorder with Agoraphobia (n = 3), Panic Disorder without Agoraphobia (n = 1) and Specific Phobia (n = 1). All of them were being treated for anxiety disorder. The "non-anxious" group had no known anxiety disorder or history of it.

There were no statistically significant differences in the chronological age between "anxious" and "non-anxious" groups (t=0.16, df=42, p> .05), and in their IQ scores (t=0.44, df=42, p> .05).

Measures
The Glasgow Anxiety Scale for people with an Intellectual Disability (GAS-ID) (Mindham & Espie, 2003) is a self-report questionnaire that consists of 27 items about worries, specific fears, and physiological symptoms of anxiety. A three-response option format is used: (0 points) 'never', (1 point) 'sometimes' and (2 points) 'always'. Thus, the GAS-ID yields a total score for the scale (0-54), but also subtotals for component scales of "worries" (0–20) (e.g. Do you worry that something awful might happen?), "specific fears" (0–18) (e.g. Do you get scared in the dark?…think of being in bed with the lights out: Would you be scared?) and "physiological symptoms" (0–16) (e.g. Do you ever feel breathless? …hard to breathe/out of breath). Cronbach's alpha reliability was 0.87 for the total scale, 0.94 for 'worries', 0.90 for 'specific fears', and 0.92 for 'physiological symptoms', respectively. The GAS-ID is "user friendly", taking only 10-15 min to administer.

A series of 20 brief tasks (similar to the concept of Zeigarnik's work) was used for the recall portion of the experiment. The young adults with ID were given Jigsaw puzzles. Half of them were interrupted tasks and half were uninterrupted ones (completed tasks).

Procedure
All participants were tested individually by the author (a certified psychologist) in one session, lasting approximately 25-30 minutes and consisting of the administration of the GAS-ID, and the experimental Zeigarnik task. Participants were informed at the beginning of the assessment that data are used for research purposes in anonymous form. If people object to such use, their data were removed. A comprehensive protocol safeguarded anonymity of the participants and ensured proper handling of the data. The Ethical Committee of the University of Western Macedonia approved the regulations and agreed with this policy.

The GAS-ID was administered individually by the author using a standardized format. The purpose of the assessment was then explained: I am going to ask you some questions about how you have been feeling since over the past week. There is no right or wrong answer; it is just about how you feel. If I have not explained something clearly, please ask me to tell you what I mean. For each question, I will ask you if you have 'never felt like this', 'sometimes felt like this' or 'always felt like this'. The author then demonstrated these responses using cue cards with visual representations of 'never', 'sometimes' and 'always', and checked that the participant understood the concepts using everyday examples (e.g. 'Do you like to go to the theatre?') and responded consistently to these. Items were then read to the participant (or she or he was assisted to read them). Some flexibility in wording was permitted (consistent with the language

used in the groups) and responses were recorded.

In the Zeigarnik task, the participants were given Jigsaw puzzles individually, only half of which were "allowed" to be completed. The recall test was given as soon as work on the series of tasks was completed.

Results

The design was a 2 ("anxious" X "non-anxious" group) X 2 [interrupted (uncompleted) – uninterrupted (completed) tasks]. The mean scores on the GAS-ID were the following [("anxious" group: M=33.50, SD = 4.50), ("non-anxious" group: M= 6.50, SD=2.50)]. It is important to mention that Mindham and Espie (2003) defined the cut-off scores in the range 13-15 of the GAS-ID, assessing all those who have above this score with a diagnosis of anxiety, while excluding all those who had below the cut-off scores (do not have a diagnosis of anxiety).

A t test for independent samples indicated that the "non-anxious" group recalled more interrupted tasks (M = 9.61, SD= 1.07) than did the "anxious" group (M = 3.90, SD= 1.69) (t=5.08, p < .01). On the contrary, "anxious" group recalled more uninterrupted tasks (M = 6.91, SD= 2.03), than did the "non-anxious" group (M = 4.48, SD= 1.84) (t=3.13, p < .05).

Moreover, analysis indicated that there were positive and significant Pearson correlations between "non-anxious" group scores and Zeigarnik scores (scores in the interrupted tasks) (r = .44, p < .01). Additionally, there were statistically significant correlations between the subscales of the GAS-ID, that is "worries", "specific fears", "physiological symptoms" and Zeigarnik scores (r = .40, p < .01, r=.37 p < .05, and r = .35, p < .05, respectively). On the other side, there were negative significant correlations between "anxious" group and Zeigarnik scores (r = -.40, p < .01). Additionally, there were negative significant correlations between "worries", "specific fears", "physiological symptoms" and Zeigarnik scores (r = -.39, p < .01, r=-.36 p < .05, and r =- .33, p < .05, respectively).

Discussion & Conclusion

The present study replicates the findings of similar studies about Zeigarnik effect, in which the participants were individuals without ID (Martin & Tesser, 2006; Moot et al., 1988). It seems that persons with ID respond in the same way and display similar patterns of behavior across domains, when compared to TD individuals. These results support the developmental approach by Edward Zigler (Burack, Hodapp & Zigler, 1998; Hodapp, Burack & Zigler, 1990; Zigler, 1969, 1999).

In the original 1927 Zeigarnik study, participants who were interrupted, while working on problems, were overtly disturbed by the interruption and evidenced a strong tendency to resume working. This putative "tendency to resume" may create some form of attentional mediation of the task material and thereby promote the portion of the task completed (Levin, 1951; Prentice, 1944). It is suggested, along with the classic theory of Lewin (1951) that accessibility decreases after a completed task, because task completion functions in a way similar to goal fulfillment. Goal fulfillment, according to many theories in cognitive, social and clinical psychology (Förster et al., 2005; Liberman, Fǿrster & Higgins, 2007; Marsh, Hicks & Bink, 1998), is followed by an inhibition (i.e., an active reduction of accessibility) of goal-related constructs. Such an inhibition after goal fulfillment is crucial for the pursuit of other goals (Liberman et al., 2007).

In relation to the anxiety variable, the participants in the "anxious" group remembered the largest percent of completed (uninterrupted) tasks and had the lowest Zeigarnik scores. It

seems that as anxiety scores increased from "low" to "high", the tendency to remember incomplete tasks decreased. There is reason to suspect that prior, unfulfilled goals could interfere with psychological and/or psychopathological factors. Indeed, research on populations with clinical depression has shown that an unfulfilled intention can be quite detrimental to other tasks, including short-term memory tests and the ability to initiate novel intentions (Kuhl & Helle, 1986). Additionally, Alevriadou (2010) explored the relationship between Zeigarnik effect and self-esteem in 48 adolescents and young adults with ID. She found that only participants "high" in self-esteem exhibited the selective recall pattern. It was hypothesized that interrupted activities were viewed as failures. It was also assumed that the recall of failures was particularly threatening to "low" self-esteem participants, resulting in selective forgetting or selective storage of solutions.

That is, for low achievers, uncompleted tasks are regarded to be threatening and to lead to increased avoidance of failures, since recall of failures would serve to bring back the pain of failure and worry which is based on negative performance expectations, causing cognitive distress. Examples of reactions of cognitive distress can be nervousness, fear, and physical discomfort, which are fundamental parts of anxiety (Lufi, Okasha & Cohen, 2004). It seems that the performance of individuals with ID may be influenced, in some measure, by noncognitive variables rather than by inherent deficits in memory performance, as it is obtained through the anxiety analysis.

Psychological and/or psychopathological factors can partially explain the differences found between the two groups. That is, the differences in cognitive performance between the two ID groups reflect the operation of certain psychological (personality variables), arising from life experiences that people with ID often encounter, such as helplessness, social deprivation and frequent experiences of failure (Burack et al., 1998; Weisz, 1979). The developmental approach of mental retardation by Zigler (1969, 1999) gives special emphasis on the whole individual. It examines ways in which personality characteristics, arising from certain life experiences, interact with the individual's developmental abilities to determine behavior on both cognitive and non-cognitive tasks (Zigler, 1999). Various studies found various personality deficiencies in individuals with ID, such as more external locus of control, higher anxiety levels, withdrawal, depression, low self-esteem, more rejection by others, and fewer social skills (Dykens, 1998; 2007). These disorders are distressing and might severely impact upon their daily functioning and performance in tasks like Zeigarnik-type ones.

Thus, efforts to understand, and maximize their mental health may hold significant benefits for individuals with ID in their pursuit of competence and independence. While this still requires further investigation, our knowledge is probably adequate enough to recommend that at times of stressful life events, physical/ medical conditions, transition to adulthood and social isolation, educators and carers should offer additional support to people with ID. Educators should also be trained to be vigilant for signs of emerging mental illness at such times, so that timely interventions can be offered. It is also clear that determination of the factors that influence the performance in Zeigarnik-type tasks warrant further empirical examination in individuals with ID.

Finally, the findings presented here stress the need to assess further the influence of anxiety. The assumption made should be tested further in future research, using a wider variety of research tools. One additional interesting line of research would be to explore which aspects

of anxiety disorder relate to the Zeigarnik effect task.

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Content and Process of the Major Training Program for State EFL Teachers in Greece: A Critical Review

Maria D. Tzotzou

Content and Process of the Major Training Program for State EFL Teachers in Greece: A Critical Review

Maria D. Tzotzou

State EFL Teacher (MA), (MEd), Primary Education of Aitoloakarnania Prefecture, Western Greece
Email: mtzotzou@yahoo.gr

Abstract
What is important for teacher development is to seek professionalism through collaboration with other colleagues, sincere critical reflection on one's practices, sharing of problems and strong desire for self-improvement for the benefit of both learners and teachers. This form of professionalism was the expected outcome of the so-called Major Training Programme (MTP) addressed to state EFL teachers in Greece which implied that state-school foreign language learning should be transformed into a forum where informed, principled experimentation is encouraged in cooperation with other stakeholders, bringing a real-life flavour to the whole learning experience. In general terms, the MTP was a teacher education programme conceptualized, developed and implemented on the basis of the 'New School' philosophy and it followed the reflective model of teacher education allowing a role for both the trainer and trainees in the process by most importantly emphasizing the development of trainees' own ability to reflect on their teaching practices. The purpose of this paper is to reflect upon the MTP providing a critical analysis and evaluation of its content and process relying on concepts and theories derived from the teacher education literature.
Keywords: Training, Reflection, Teacher Development, Personal Theory, Trainee-Centeredness.

Introduction
Traditionally, in Greece, in-service teacher training focused on *transmission-based* and *trainer-centred* approaches. Teacher educators by means of lectures or different kinds of presentations used to transmit theoretical knowledge and basic skills to trainees who were treated as passive recipients of 'ready-made' knowledge rather than active agents engaged in decision-making processes (Crandall, 2000). The majority of teacher training programmes, if not all, included mostly seminars or one-day conferences which didn't actually facilitate the active involvement of the participating teachers (Bax, 1997; Johnson, 2006).

The above-mentioned transmission-based approach to teacher training changed for the first time in 2011 when a pilot six-month training course, the so-called Major Training Programme (MTP)[1], which was a formal in-service voluntary/non-compulsory training course, addressed to state-school teachers from different areas all over Greece, was implemented to foster *teacher development* (Beaumont, 2005). The MTP demonstrated a shift toward a more reflective and holistic approach to teacher education which promoted *trainee-centeredness* and provided opportunities for trainees' *autonomy* (Beaumont, 2005). This shift covered the need for the teacher education to become more *process-oriented* in a constructivist way prompting the teachers to discover their 'personal theory' which constitutes the basis on which new knowledge, skills and attitudes will be accommodated (Crandall, 2000). In fact, the MTP marked a new era for the teacher training in Greece focusing on the importance of research and inquiry on the part of the teachers as well as on the role of *reflection* in the professional development of state-school teachers (Bartlett, 1990; Freeman & Richards, 1993).

The MTP attempted to respond to the new educational challenges of the 21st century[2] based on the assumption that teacher autonomy and the ability to make informed decisions become even more imperative nowadays especially because traditionally prescribed educational models and methods have been questioned and proved ineffective the last decades. Taking into consideration the fact that the trainee-teachers are not the 'empty bucket' to fill it, the MTP focused on previous school experience activating trainees' *critical* and *autonomous* thinking processes (Yates & Muchisky, 2003). The training programme was structured around the 'New School' philosophy which values teachers' personal experience and teaching practice as essentially important and a threshold for any conceptual change or development they might achieve.

In light of the above, the present paper attempts a critical review of the content and process of the MTP for state EFL[3] teachers in Greece. To this end, after providing an outline of the specific training context including the training institution characteristics, the target teaching situation, the MTP purpose and participants (trainers and trainees), it is attempted a thorough analysis and evaluation of its content and process on the basis of modern theoretical approaches to issues of teacher education and professional development.

Theoretical Background
There are several definitions as regards teacher education, teacher training and teacher

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[1] 8,000 permanent state-school teachers from seven different specializations participated in this pilot MTP period and the training course took place in 57 training centers in five selected prefectures all over Greece according to the information available at the official MTP site (http://www.epimorfosi.edu.gr/). It is worth noting here that it was an innovative training project as the MTP planning and implementation was based on the results of an extended research study regarding the school teachers' actual training needs (available at http://www.epimorfosi.edu.gr/index.php/2010-06-02-19-22-56/65-2010-10-18-13-39-01). Although according to the initial planning the MTP aimed to train almost 150,000 public and private school teachers of all disciplines in primary and secondary education (as cited in Anastasiades, 2011), unfortunately, after its pilot phase, despite its successful implementation and completion, this innovative training programme was ceased or even 'blocked' probably either due to rapid political changes in Greece (e.g. elections, new government, appointment of a new minister of education, etc) or/and due to the financial crisis and the lack of funds from the Greek state and the ministry of education as long as the co-funding provided by the European Social Fund (ESPA 2007-13) came to an end. For more details regarding this training course schedule, methodology and structure, see the *Basic Training Material, Vol. A: General Part* (2011), pp. 48-53.

[2] Basic Training Material, Vol. A: General Part (2011), pp. 10-11.
[3] EFL=English as a Foreign Language.

development in the relevant literature (Freeman, 1989; Manolopoulou-Sergi, 2005; Richards, 1990; Widdowson, 1983; Woodward, 1992). According to Richards (1990), *training* in the micro perspective focuses on equipping teachers with a repertoire of strategies to facilitate their teaching practices whereas in the macro perspective *education* stresses the importance of infiltrating acquired knowledge through personal qualities like judgment, flexibility and creativity. Freeman (1989), however, supports that *education* constitutes an umbrella term including the concepts of both training and development. In particular, according to Freeman, *training* is described as the direct intervention on the part of the trainer with emphasis on knowledge and skills which aims at mastering specific trainable aspects of teaching through practice whereas *development* is considered to be an indirect intervention which focuses on idiosyncratic and more complex aspects of teaching, with a view to encouraging a shift of awareness and attitude, which would subsequently lead teachers to change of attitudes and practices.

In the present paper, focus is especially placed on the reflective model of teacher education which formed the theoretical 'backbone' of the MTP. The *reflective model* is an alternative model of teacher education which allows trainees to construct their own teaching 'theory and practice' by exploiting their own previous experience as well as knowledge coming from research. It is then up to the trainees to put their knowledge to practice and become reflective on the grounds of their actions, the strengths or the weaknesses of their teaching practices. According to the reflective model, there is no one good model or recipe of teaching that everyone should follow. The teachers are encouraged to be flexible and creative in their decision-making processes reflecting upon their own teaching situation and their learners' actual needs (Farrell, 1999).

Reflection also plays a defining role in the process of a teacher's *professional development* in O'Brien's (1981) *E-R-O-T-I* model. In this teacher training model the input comes from the trainees' own experience usually gained through classroom observation sessions or even an analysis of their ideas. The trainees are engaged in a trial process experimenting with the theoretical input and applying it accordingly into daily classroom practice. In a similar vein, Zeichner (1994) considers that reflection is essential for bringing understanding to the complex nature of classrooms and states that teachers should be trained to reflect on the subject matter and the thoughtful application of particular teaching strategies. He further states that teachers need to reflect on their learners' understandings, interests and developmental thinking. In other words, teachers need to look at teaching from other perspectives beyond their 'egocentric' view, that is, to become more *reflective practitioners* (Green, 2006).

The MTP followed the *reflective model* of teacher education (Wallace, 1991) allowing a role for both the trainer and trainees in the process by most importantly emphasizing the development of trainees' own ability to reflect on their teaching through a variety of techniques such as group-work, plenary discussions, reflection materials, assignments and presentations. Reflective practice was also exploited as a professional development process towards achieving behavioural change[4].

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[4] Manolopoulou-Sergi & Sifakis (2011), in *Basic Training Material, Vol. B: Specific Part-English* (2011), p. 47.

Setting the Training Context
Training Institution
The MTP was organized by the Pedagogical Institute in 2011 (from June to December 2011) which was the main training institution authorized by the Greek ministry of education to organize the specific training programme. That period, the Pedagogical Institute[5] was the oldest *research and advisory* state body which essentially contributed to the educational policy implemented by the ministry of education. Its main aim was the submission of *pedagogical proposals, advice and recommendations* to the minister of education on all issues of education, as well as the *implementation* of the decisions made by the minister of education. One of its principal duties was the design and implementation of *training programmes* for state-school teachers on new curricula, new technologies, teaching methodologies, school management and other pedagogical issues in order to improve the *quality* of primary and secondary education.

The Target Teaching Situation
The target teaching situation is defined by the 'New School' purpose and principles structured around the new *digital, innovative, multilingual* and *multicultural* education in order to cover the modern educational needs and challenges of the 21st century[6]. To this end, it exploits modern teaching theories and follows a *differentiated approach* to learning towards the development of humanistic values and basic skills related to the role of learners as future responsible citizens, their active participation in social and cultural life, their collective social spirit, autonomous action, environmental awareness, aesthetic experience as well as their positive attitude towards lifelong learning.

Regarding foreign language learning, as clearly stated in Volume B of the MTP material (2011, pp. 2-8), there is a focus on the development of learners' *cognitive, social* and *communicative* skills in relation to certain foreign language learning levels as defined in the new *unified curriculum for the foreign languages*[7] and as prescribed by the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (Council of Europe, 2001). In this context, the EFL teacher needs to be constantly trained and informed about the new pedagogical approaches which promote differentiated instruction, experiential learning, the cross-thematic approach, intercultural awareness and educational technology. The teacher also needs to be familiar with web resources and applications which can facilitate tremendously teaching, enriching the school textbooks and creating conditions towards learners' motivation. EFL teachers are encouraged to take initiatives and become active course designers**,** developers and creators by reflecting upon, revising, improving and adjusting the existing curricula to the actual language needs, learning styles and preferences of their learners[8].

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[5] The Pedagogical Institute has been replaced by the Institute of Educational Policy since 2012 (http://www.pi-schools.gr/pi_history/). In particular, the Institute of Educational Policy was founded in 2011 with the Law 3966 (Government Gazette A΄ 118/24-05-2011) functioning under the supervision of the Greek Ministry of Education, Research and Religious Affairs to support and promote scientific research regarding current as well as future education issues, methods and policies (http://www.iep.edu.gr/index.php/el/).

[6] The 'New School' philosophy, purpose, principles and methods are extensively presented in the *Basic Training Material, Vol. A: General Part* (2011), pp. 9-33.

[7] Basic Training Material, Vol. B: Specific Part- English (2011), pp. 1-2.

[8] Basic Training Material, Vol. B: Specific Part- English (2011), pp. 7-8.

The MTP Purpose

The main target of the programme, as clearly stated in the basic training material[9], was teachers' *professional development* in a holistic way by building up trainees' internal agenda, awareness and attitudes through peer interaction. In particular, it aimed at facilitating EFL teachers in making informed decisions for their classrooms that prioritise learning by becoming autonomous and 'open' to experimentation and thus enjoying their teaching to the benefit of their learners. The MTP was also conceptualized, developed and implemented on the basis of the 'New School' philosophy, as already mentioned, to provide trainees with *specific training* by promoting innovative EFL teaching techniques and cross-thematic activities, differentiated learning, course design skills and the integration of new technologies and arts into EFL learning (Strevens, 1974). All in all, the MTP aimed to equip the trainees with innovative teaching/learning ideas and techniques in order to teach *young learners*, aged between 6 and 18 years old, of different English language competence levels studying in Greek state primary and secondary schools.

The MTP Participants: Trainers and Trainees

The MTP trainers were carefully selected on the basis of certain academic and professional criteria. They had a long and remarkable *teaching experience* in both school education and teacher training. They were also characterized by a rich *academic background* with a lot of *qualifications* regarding ELT[10] methodology, adult education and distance learning. The majority of trainers had been *state school teachers* for decades or *school advisors*, which means that they were very familiar with the target teaching situation and the ELT practice/routine of their trainees in the Greek state-school context. In particular, school advisors are teachers with high academic and professional qualifications officially selected and appointed by the Ministry of Education to cover the educational needs of prefectures all over Greece whose responsibilities mainly include in-service training of schoolteachers, evaluation of both the educational process and schoolteachers, school teachers' counselling and pedagogical guidance as well as remedial work on their possible deficiencies (Tzotzou, 2014).

As far as trainees are concerned, they were *in-service permanent[11] state EFL teachers*, all holding a *university degree* on English language and literature. Due to their previous university English studies they had already developed their English language competence to a great extent. They were characterized by a *strong motivation* for teaching and teacher training as they decided to apply for an optional and extremely demanding training course which lasted almost six months. Each group of trainees (≈ 20 trainees per group) could be characterized *homogeneous* as the trainees were native Greek people with almost similar religious beliefs, common national, linguistic and cultural origin, and a middle-class social status. However, there was some kind of *'gender gap'* among the trainees (notable age differences) which naturally resulted in considerable differences regarding their overall teaching experience. There were twenty in-service state EFL teachers-trainees in each one of the groups who had to participate in both the

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[9] Basic Training Material, Vol. B: Specific Part-English (2011), pp.44-45.
[10] ELT=English Language Teaching.

[11] In Greek state schools of both primary and secondary education, there are officially two main categories of teaching staff: a. the permanent school teachers appointed by the Ministry of Education (either through written exams or on the basis of certain criteria, e.g. previous teaching experience, social criteria, etc) to offer their teaching services continuously and b. temporary school teachers who are employed on a temporary basis (about 8-9 months) every school year.

contact sessions and the distance part of the course.

Analysis of the Course
The MTP content
The MTP aimed to present and promote the so-called 'New School' principles in classroom practices as stated in Volume A of the MTP material (2011, pp. 9-33)[12]. Initially, it offered *general professional training* towards understanding the psychological and humanistic aspects of modern education (e.g. team building, empathy, intercultural understanding) in its new social and multicultural context. In this context, trainee teachers were triggered to reflect upon professional issues of concern, both individually and in groups. Such issues included the *impact* and *consequences* (intended and unintended) of different educational policies as well as practitioner issues such as managing relationships with learners, colleagues and parents in the school community as a whole.

Subsequently, it provided trainees with *specific training* in order to familiarize them with innovative EFL teaching techniques and cross-thematic activities, differentiated learning methods, course design skills and the integration of new technologies into EFL learning[13] (Strevens, 1974). To this end, the content was structured around both teaching experience and practice focusing on the new unified curriculum for the foreign languages-EPS-XG curriculum which includes concepts such as *differentiated learning, educational technology, interculturalism and multilingualism, experiential learning, integration of world knowledge, cross-thematic approach to integrating art and environmental issues in the foreign language classroom*[14]. All these issues were processed looking into ways by which they could be implemented in the EFL classroom.

The MTP content, in alignment with the 'New School' principles, emphasized the development of *human values*, growth in *self-awareness* and in the *understanding* of others, *sensitivity* to human feelings and emotions, active learner *involvement* in learning and in the way human learning takes place (Beaumont, 2005). Teaching was not seen as a simple technical responsibility but as an inherent personal, ethical and moral matter and the role of values was essentially recognized (Johnston, 2003; Mori, 2003). To this end, the course encouraged the exchange of ideas and sharing of concerns by fostering trust, empathy and trainees' emotional involvement (Johari, 2006).

The MTP Process
The MTP was carried out on the basis of a *blended model* including three cycles of contact sessions and a distance schedule of work (total duration: 200 hours)[15]. Contact sessions included experiential group-work and plenary discussions, a written exam as well as the design and presentation of a microteaching while distance work comprised the study of materials, the

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[12] Basic Training Material, Vol. A: General Part, (2011), available at: http://84.205.248.3/images/stories/ebook-epimorfotes/geniko-meros/1.%20tomos%20a%20geniko.pdf

[13] Basic Training Material, Vol. B: Specific Part, May 2011, available at: http://84.205.248.3/images/stories/ebook-epimorfotes/english/6.%20AGGLIKA.pdf

[14] Basic Training Material, Vol. B: Specific Part-English (2011), p. 45.

[15] See the *Basic Training Material, Vol. A: General Part, (2011), p. 49* and/or the whole training schedule posted at: http://www.epimorfosi.edu.gr/images/stories/progr_a_b/2.%20programma%20epimorfosis%20ekpaideutikon%20b%20thmia.pdf

submission of two written assignments, regular e-mail correspondence, trainer' s support and feedback reports.

More specifically, contact sessions included *demonstrations, pair/group/plenary discussion, workshops* as well as *microteaching* (Ellis, 1986). Trainers demonstrated a particular technique (e.g. jigsaw reading, role-play, group formation) by activating the trainees themselves. They also invited trainees to work in pairs or groups using activity sheets in order either to carry out a pair/group discussion (e.g. exchanging/sharing experience and opinions) or to prepare ELT materials and lesson plans. After each workshop there was always a plenary discussion on ELT issues, initially discussed in pairs/groups, with all the trainees together. These procedures were enriched with *video presentations* and *experiential activities* such as classroom teaching, peer teaching and microteaching (Ellis, 1986).

Other training activities, as put forward by Parrott (1993), included *reading* ELT texts and course materials; *watching* ELT material through trainees' involvement; *speaking* through collaborative brainstorming by exchanging and comparing opinions, ideas, knowledge, beliefs, assumptions and experience with co-participants in the task; *writing* through brainstorming ideas, preparing and describing lessons/techniques; *drawing* diagrams and mind-maps; *recalling* types of materials used in the classroom, learning methods and styles; *producing* materials for classroom use and lesson plans; *comparing* two or more lesson plans, personal opinions and experience with co-trainees; *teaching* by experimenting with New School philosophy and approaches in actual ELT practice.

After each training activity there was always a *feedback session* in which pairs/groups reported back their ideas (Wallace, 1991). A specific person of each group (spokesperson) was nominated to make notes and present the conclusions of the group orally to the rest. Notes were usually made on a large sheet of paper 'posted' on the wall (Woodward, 1992) with other groups commenting or asking questions and after noting down the main points of the presentation a 'plenary circle' followed to facilitate a discussion as a whole (Parrott, 1993).

Last but not least, distance procedures relied upon principles underlying adult education ensuring maximum flexibility regarding space, time and trainees' special learning rhythms in accordance with the methodology of distance education (Anastasiades, 2011). In particular, they comprised the *study of specially designed materials* mainly produced by the Pedagogical Institute, expert scientists in the field or even the trainers themselves, the submission of two *written assignments*, *e-mail correspondence* at regular times, the *trainer's support* and trainer's *feedback* reports[16].

Evaluation of the Course
The MTP content

The MTP managed to select and organize its content in a way which promoted *experiential* training/learning and integration with lasting effects on the trainees' teaching practice. In particular, it exploited both *personal input* (personal experience) and *external input* (vicarious experience, theory) through active experimentation, reflective and peer observation (Johari, 2006). Trainees worked out theories about teaching in practice, thus becoming able to develop their personal theories of action (Clarke, 1994; Widdowson, 1984). Moreover, trainees gained in-

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[16] Basic Training Material, Vol. A: General Part, (2011), p. 59-60.

depth knowledge and experience from *specially designed reading materials*, *other teachers'* *experiments* (e.g. lesson plans, teaching proposals) and *suggested bibliography on the literature* for further reading[17].

It focused on *practical experience* by activating trainees' critical and autonomous 'higher-order' thinking skills through analyzing, synthesizing and evaluating past and new knowledge on ELT issues (Bloom, 1956). The printed and audiovisual training materials fostered teachers' professional development in a *holistic* way by building up trainees' internal agenda, awareness and attitudes. As a result, trainees learned *how* to make informed decisions for their classrooms that prioritise learning by becoming autonomous and 'open' to experimentation and thus enjoying their teaching to the benefit of their learners.

The MTP was based on the assumption that teachers' knowledge is inherently their own, constructed by teachers themselves, and largely experiential. In this regard, theory informed *classroom practice* only to the extent to which teachers themselves made sense of that theory. In other words, the MTP situated learning about teaching within an *experiential context* and developed in teachers ways of knowing and doing that represent the socially constructed, perceptual, and interpretative nature of real teaching. Trainees were constantly engaged in a *process of sense-making*, enabling them to not simply change what they do, but change their justifications for what they do (Pennington, 1992). In this way, *sense-making* made theory relevant for practice as teachers' knowledge, whether theoretical or practical, conceptual or perceptual, was understood and acted on within the context of real teaching (Johnson, 1996). Consequently, teachers were not treated as consumers of theories but as *'theorists'* (theory-builders) in their own right (Clarke, 1994; Widdowson, 1984) being engaged actively in *experiential training* through a practice-reflection cycle of activities (Ur, 1999).

In this regard, the MTP content was not rigid and static but *flexible* and *dynamic*. In fact, it was built up progressively and 'composed' naturally by relying upon personal and vicarious experience, critical reflection and the relevant EFL literature (Farrell, 1998; Ur, 1999). On that basis, there was also integration of theory and practice which was achieved through *sense-making* which made theory relevant for practice as teachers' knowledge, whether theoretical or practical, conceptual or perceptual, was understood and acted on within the *context of real teaching* (Johnson, 1996). Teachers-trainees became legitimate knowers, producers of legitimate knowledge, and capable of constructing and sustaining their own professional practice over time (Johnson & Golombek, 2002).

The MTP Process
The MTP followed the *E-R-O-T-I* model of teacher training (O'Brien, 1981) as it was based on experience, rationale, observation, trial and integration by aiming at the application of theory to practice. *Trial* took place extensively by applying new ELT practices in the context of the training classroom (peer interaction, microteaching) and *integration* took place in the 'real' classroom of the in-service trainees in their schools.

The extended use of *experiential practices* involved the trainees in *actual teaching* providing them with the opportunity to teach actual learners in their own classrooms and in *simulated practice* through peer teaching and observation tasks mainly through microteaching.

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[17] Basic Training Material, Vol. B: Specific Part-English (2011), p. 44-106.

Trainees were engaged actively in experiential training through a *practice-reflection* cycle of activities (Ur, 1999) by being exposed to various models of teaching beyond the fiction that there is one best way to teach (Roberts, 1998). Also, *'loop input'* tasks, such as jigsaw reading and group formation, helped them experience on their own new ELT practices and understand how they can promote the 'New School' principles of collaboration and empathy.

It also followed the *reflective model* of teacher education (Wallace, 1991) as it allowed a role for both the trainer and trainees in the process by most importantly emphasizing the development of trainees' own ability to reflect on their teaching through a variety of techniques such as group-work, plenary discussions, reflection materials, assignments and presentations. In particular, reflection enabled teachers to *diagnose* and *understand* their classroom contexts, put their learners at the heart of the teaching-learning process, develop a rationale for their teaching on their own and make informed decisions (Al-Issa, 2002). In each group, trainees were encouraged to use their growing 'knowledge base' (Schulman, 1987) to identify problems emerging in their school classrooms through 'reflection-in-action' and 'reflection-on-action' (Schön, 1983) and try to solve these problems through continuous reflection, professional and critical inquiry into their own practices (Schön, 1983, 1987). In this way trainees reached new understandings of purposes, learners, learning process, instruction and self and consolidated these new understandings through strategies such as documentation, analysis and discussion (Schulman, 1987) as they were actively engaged in the exchange of ideas and sharing of concerns by fostering trust, empathy and their emotional involvement (Johari, 2006).

Through *group-work* (cross-over and pyramid grouping) trainees were involved in peer interaction and reflective dialogues to access new information (Farrell, 1999). They were provided with appropriate teaching material and reading resources working in supportive and interactive small tutorial groups. The experiential activities carried out by tutorless groups raised trainees' self-awareness of past experiences, and current beliefs, practice and knowledge, created opportunities for discussion with fellow trainees by addressing one's practice, beliefs and pressures affecting one's work (Wallace, 1991).

Awareness-raising practices developed trainees' conscious understanding of the principles underlying EFL teaching and the practical techniques that teachers can use in different kinds of lessons (Ellis, 1986). New understanding emerged from a process of reshaping existing knowledge, beliefs, and practices (Johnson & Golombek, 2003). Hence, there was a shift from a transmission model of teacher education (Fanselow, 1988) to a *constructivist model* (Roberts 1998) which views teacher education as ongoing engagement between received knowledge and experiential knowledge (Wallace 1991). In this context, the trainers' role was mostly to stimulate, organize, coordinate, monitor, support and encourage both individual reflection and peer observation on EFL teaching practices in a collaborative context.

In the MTP, *art/craft conceptions* of teaching predominated over any prescribed sets of teaching skills or general teaching methods. Trainees were stimulated to discover things that work through a process of decision-making, reflection, analysis and assessment (Freeman & Richards, 1993). Teaching was seen as an essentially individual undertaking in which trainees were invited to take initiatives and become active *course designers*, *developers* and *creators* by reflecting upon, revising, improving and adjusting the existing curricula to the actual language needs, learning styles and preferences of their learners. The art/craft approach of conceptualizing teaching was also accompanied by a *philosophy conception* of teaching *based on*

values as the MTP emphasized the development of human values, growth in self-awareness and in the understanding of others, sensitivity to human feelings and emotions, active learner involvement in learning and in the way human learning takes place (Beaumont, 2005).

Last but not least, the MTP was *trainee-centred* allowing trainees to have control over the purpose (product) and the form (structure) of their training. The MTP process emphasized the development of trainees' own ability to reflect on their teaching (Bartlet, 1990; Mann, 2005) through a variety of experiential techniques such as *group-work, plenary discussions, reflection materials, assignments and microteaching* (Ellis, 1986). *Reflection* was a means of investigating teachers' beliefs, cognitive processes and decision-making practices (Borg, 2003). As Roberts (1998) argues, development is only possible through a *process of reflection, self-monitoring and self-evaluation*. These processes are 'the only possible basis for long-term change' (Roberts 1998: 305). A number of studies have also demonstrated that more reflective teachers are better able to monitor, make real-time decisions and respond to the changing needs of learners than less reflective teachers (Mann, 2005; McMeniman et al., 2003; Yost et al., 2000).

Conclusion

In the course of the MTP, teacher education was not seen as an individual endeavour, but rather, as a process that was anchored in a reflective training model, where knowledge was created through an *interactive* and *consensual* interpretation of shared reality. Trainee teachers were given opportunities to reflect on and co-construct professional knowledge with their colleagues. *Reflection* enabled the trainees to critically evaluate methods and techniques through experimentation and trial as well as to embrace and integrate the ones conducive to the effectiveness of their teaching practices and to their developing into reflective practitioners. The trainees experienced new ELT practices, constructed and owned by the trainees themselves, by forming clear conceptions of the principles underlying 'New School' procedures and being able not only to apply these principles but also to create further practice (Richards, 1990; Ur, 1996).

To conclude, the MTP was the first innovative training course in Greece which stimulated trainees to discover things that work through a reflective process of decision-making and situated learning about teaching within an experiential context (Freeman & Richards, 1993). Through its innovative content and process, it developed in trainees ways of knowing and doing that represent the socially constructed, perceptual, and interpretative nature of real teaching, a 'multi-dimensional awareness' and the ability to apply this awareness to their actual contexts of teaching aiming at a *long-term effect* of the specific training and knowledge input (Tomlinson, 2003).

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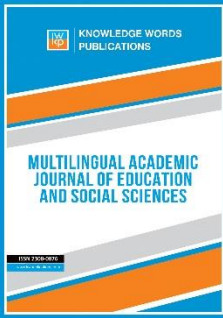
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Lifelong Learning in Russia: History, Concepts & Practices

Maria A. Dremina, Natalia N. Davydova & Vitaly A. Kopnov

Lifelong Learning in Russia: History, Concepts & Practices

Maria A. Dremina, Natalia N. Davydova & Vitaly A. Kopnov

Russian State Vocational Pedagogical University (RSVPU), Russian Federation
Email: Kopnov@list.ru

Abstract

The present paper provides a brief historical review of lifelong learning development in the Russian Federation, identifying key developments and texts from the nineteenth century onwards. Further, the main approaches to understanding and implementing lifelong learning are reviewed, along with the basic models of lifelong education provision in Russian universities in the context of a globalized economy and the Bologna process. The development of research in Higher Education, as well as of networks of education institutions and industrial enterprises are highlighted as an important component of the lifelong learning system evolution in Russia. The paper also briefly reviews a case study of a research and education network, depicting that the main parameters of the networking activities that promote lifelong learning pertain to the exchange of information, collaborative expertise, and provision of open educational programs.

Keywords: Lifelong Learning, Continuous Education, Non-Formal Education, Formal Education, Vocational Education, History, Higher Education, Networks, Russia.

Introduction

The historical analysis of relevant literature concerning the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) indicates that practically until the 1970s the field of lifelong learning was not a subject of thorough theoretical and methodological research. Nevertheless the ideas of human-centered education and training, of creating the "true human being", as propagandized by V.G. Belinskiy, K. Ushinskiy and N. Pirogov in the XIXth century, largely influenced the Russian education system, which has gradually evolved to be more focused on the challenges of lifelong learning, emphasizing that life demands constant development of human abilities only to be achieved when learning becomes an intrinsic need.

In effect, we can trace three basic tenets in relevant literature concerning the emergence of lifelong learning. Firstly, a number of Russian authors, namely A. Darinsky and G.A. Jagodin, have pointed out that the concept of lifelong learning can be originally traced in the works of ancient Chinese and Indian scholars, while later on it was reflected in the ideas of J. Comenius, F. Voltaire, and J.J. Rousseau. It should be also noted that in the works of A. Darinsky and G. Yagodin there is reference to the necessity of 'studying every five years if individuals do not want to lag

behind' (Darinsky, 1972; Yagodin, 1986). Proponents of the second tenet assume that the emergence of the concept of lifelong learning is closely interconnected with the realities of the modern era, characterized by active development processes in all spheres of socioeconomic life (Osipov, 1989). Finally, representatives of the third tenet consider that although the concept of lifelong learning exists for quite a long time, the practices around it have rather recently gained attention. Among the Russian scientists who adhere to this view are Vladislavlev (1978), Zinchenko (1991); Onushkin (1989).

In the following sections we will therefore conduct a brief historical review of lifelong learning development in Russia.

Brief History of Lifelong Learning

The first Russian educationalist to develop a theory of adult education, as an integral part of lifelong learning, was Vakhterov (1896-1924). He presumed that only under an integrated lifelong learning provision by Sunday schools, knowledge update courses and public libraries there could be ensured a wide range of educational activities for all individuals. His ideas were explicitly expressed in the brochure "Sunday rural schools and reception courses" (Vakhterov, 1896a), as well as in the book "Out-of-school education" (Vakhterov, 1896b).

The movement for adult education back in those years was self-regulated. By the beginning of the XXth century around 80 Sunday schools and more than 500 evening courses for workers had been established, thanks to active public support. Sunday schools became an alternative to state schools, where education was provided in accordance with wider public needs. Furthermore, Sunday schools substantially contributed to the development of a humanistic approach to lifelong learning and to the promotion of "teacher-student" relations. However, in 1862 they were closed down by a governmental decree, due to "pestilential doctrines, outrageous ideas, slanted interpretation of proprietary right and atheism, which were transmitted under the guise of literacy" (Vershlovsk, 2007).

Charnorusky (1865-1941), a renounced Russian educator of the time, extensively investigated the interrelations between the government, local authorities, civil society organizations and private sector initiatives in adult education. He presumed that the government should further promote education by legislative means, as well as by providing greater flexibility to private sector initiatives. This, he posited, could largely contribute to the democratization of public life, fostering a "solid foundation for complete free and wide development" of public education (Charnorusky, 1909).

Hence, what should be particularly noted is the significant role played by private entrepreneurs in promoting lifelong learning in Russia. It was indeed their charitable contribution that enabled the implementation of Sunday and evening male and female classes, free libraries and reading rooms back in the XIXth century, while in 1908 the first public university was established in Moscow sponsored by the Exchequer. The institutionalization and the widening of adult education (libraries, clubs, associations) provided individuals with an opportunity to take the first steps towards personalized lifelong learning schemata, mainly for personal development and self-consciousness enhancement, transforming their perceptions both of themselves and of the world around them. Actually, adult education did not coincide with vocational training at that time.

The beginning of the Soviet period was marked with a wide-scaled provision of adult

education initiatives. Mass literacy was achieved by means of out-of-school education, such as public universities, workers` faculties, recreation centers etc. Yet, the attitude towards the role and functions of adult education were not homogeneous. Shortly thereafter the concept of adult education, which before the revolution used to encompass the humanistic ideals of the Enlightment, was displaced by the Bolshevists' viewpoint. Consequently, the term "out-of-school education" was altered to contain political awareness-building. The state and leading party control of out-of-school education led to the debilitation of social agents and the loss of educational independency. The harsh ideologization of education led to the degradation of its humanistic dimensions, transforming it into a tool for tackling social and economic challenges.

Nevertheless, the interest in adult education concerning literacy programs was not diminished. On the contrary, in 1931, Thorndike's et al. (1928) work was translated into Russian, while the first Russian didactic manuals summarizing existing experience in adult education made their appearance (Golant et al., 1930). Adult education as social, political and cultural knowledge obtained therefore pedagogical status under a complex interdisciplinary approach grounded on the premise that an adult should be taught "adultly". Also, in 1947, the association "Znanie" was established upon an initiative of scholars, continuing the tradition of pre-revolutionary education of intelligentsia. Notwithstanding that the activity of the association was strongly ideological, it also addressed professional and leisure needs of citizens.

However, it was during the scientific and technical revolution of the sixties and seventies that a massive investment in knowledge took place in the Soviet Russia. The new social and economic situation highly influenced adult education, as well. From 1960 to 1970 the number of workers involved in different kinds of secondary vocational education increased from 9,8 to 18,7 million. Moreover, a network of advanced training institutes affiliated to universities and enterprises was developed, while public universities also gained popularity in the mid-seventies – with more than 10 million people enrolled (Vershlovski, 2007).

At the same time, a wide public discussion on lifelong learning was initiated. Experts and scientists from different fields, such as heads of enterprises, sociologists, philosophers, psychologists and teachers took part in the debates on the prominent role of lifelong learning in the social and economic development of the Soviet Union. They emphasized that education not only prepares individuals to adjust to the changing conditions of labor, but it also shapes social culture and personal attitudes. Hence, the concept of lifelong learning was forwarded to accommodate the necessity of mass advanced and/or compensatory-adaptive education and training. To this end, several structural adjustments in the adult education system emerged; the provision of educational programs in traditional educational institutions was replaced by the implementation of specialized institutes in order to provide professional retraining with due regard to social changes and psychological individualities. It is thus evident that these new realities left little room for a comprehensive humanistic development of lifelong learning.

Furthermore, the serious social and economic developments in the eighties and nineties generated new challenges for the lifelong learning system. The defined as "new industrial" (Bell), "technotronic" (Galbreith), "high technology and informatics" (Toffler) society, growing rapidly along the material achievements of contemporary civilization, gave rise to a number of social, political and ethical problems which to a certain extent pertain to modern Russia, as well. The loss of control over social processes and the inability to implement long-term strategies because of the penetration of global financial markets to all aspects of human activity, led to reconsidering

the aims and functions of lifelong learning. Just like before, the true purpose of lifelong learning was to assist human adaptation to the altering socio-economic conditions. However, the distinct challenges of late modernity made scholars and politicians reinterpret the demands addressed both to individuals and to education. While the scientific and technical revolution urged human resources to pursue their professional functionality and advancement through lifelong education and training courses, the post-industrial society intensified as well the impetus of human adaptation to ethnically and linguistically varied surroundings.

Consequently, the boundaries of adult education overcame the professional sphere, establishing new trends for lifelong learning, which was not restricted any more to the labor force, but addressed the whole population, including senior citizens and retirees. The participation of seniors in lifelong learning has actually provided them with additional possibilities in coping with social isolation and keeping active throughout retirement. These developments have been reflected in the Russian lifelong education system through the establishment of the Public school for senior citizens in St. Petersburg in 1998, as well as through the provision of multiple educational programs on legal matters, healthcare, foreign language learning in different regions of the Russian Federation (Litvinova, 1999).

Yet, alongside the above programs, there has also been a substantial increase in the number of innovation-oriented enterprises, catering for the training of their employees in line with the needs of contemporary production, taking place in specialized institutes of advanced education and training affiliated to universities. This has led to the emergence of new forms of enterprises known as "learning organizations" which have been mushrooming around the country. Learning organizations promote organizational learning in order to be able to reciprocate with the environment and enable their employees' continuous personal and professional advancement. The first Russian learning organizations referred to as 'corporate universities' appeared in the affiliated enterprises of "British American Tobacco", "Mars, Motorola" and "Coca-Cola". Later on, the implementation of corporate universities became widely-spread and was embraced by almost all large companies, such as "Norilsk Nickel", "Magnitogorsk Iron & Steel Works", "Rosgosstrakh," "MTS", "Vympelkom", "Wimm-Bill-Dann Foods", "VTB Bank". Nowadays, there exist more than 30 corporate institutes in Russia.

It is thus evident that the global social and cultural changes have led to the emergence of a totally new approach to lifelong learning. Freedom and responsibility are the two key terms on which contemporary education systems are based, whilst the lifelong learning concept has provided the context for the interconnection of formal, informal and non-formal education.

Evolution of the Lifelong Learning Concept
Research in Russia around the concept of lifelong learning and its contemporary apprehension was intensified in the sixties, based upon the results of previous research both in the country and internationally. The starting point of lifelong learning research was the works of British scholars in the first quarter of the XXth century, drawing on the compensatory character of adult learning and on its contribution to knowledge update. Later on, in the late fifties lifelong learning was perceived to organically combine vocational and general education, whilst including self-education as well (Hartung, 1966; Kidd, 1966).

The humanistic dimension in the interpretations of the time were evident in relevant literature, focusing on lifelong learning for the development of the human being, for which

optimal conditions throughout a person`s lifetime should be fostered (Correa, 1973; Darinskii, 1972; Durko, 1982; Elliott, 1969; Legrand, 1970; Shukla, 1971; Sukhodolski, 1972). Hence, research of this period was mainly phenomenological, drawing on the evolution of the lifelong learning concept, the need to develop a unified concept, and on the impetus to form a new holistic educational system. An integral component in the development of the lifelong learning theory was the holistic concept of «Global Vision», according to which all structural parts of the human civilization are interconnected and interdependent. Yet, it is the human being that lies in the heart of all processes in the world.

Coombs (1968) was the first scholar internationally to refer to the existence of an educational global crisis, which lay in the gap between the established education systems and the rapidly changing conditions in society. Thus, in the 1970s there were the first attempts to provide a generalized description and definition of lifelong learning. In 1972 the report of the Faure Commission was presented to UNESCO, which incorporated the basic concepts about the structure of adult education, the vertical and horizontal integration of all learning forms, self-education, and the versatile development of personality. It is actually in the UNESCO reports that the term "lifelong learning" was firstly mentioned (Shukla, 1971). Henceforth, the objectives, attributes, ways and conditions of the implementation of lifelong learning became the subject-matter of methodological inquiries. During this period R.H. Dave (Dave, 1973) delivered a list of characteristic attributes of lifelong learning:

- education and learning do not end with a diploma, but are processes that last for a lifetime;
- lifelong learning begins within the family;
- lifelong learning as a system evolves in response to the demands and requests of society;
- lifelong learning aspires to continuity and integration at each stage of human life;
- lifelong learning is characterized by flexibility and diversity of contents, tools, methods and training time;
- lifelong learning serves as an organizing principle of all education.

At the same time, in the USSR, in the context of rebooting the ruined national economies, there emerged a strong mandate for tackling the lack of education among young people who had left school during the Second World War. According to Jozeph Zajda:

"During the 1950s adult education had a very concrete meaning, referring to evening school (vechernye shkoly) and correspondence schools (zaochnye shkoly). The term became more obscure with the emergence of the concept of "continuing education" (nepreryvnoe obrazovanie) in the 1960s and 1970s."

(Zajda, 2008).

In 1969, an Evening Research Institute, as well as correspondence secondary education were founded within the framework of the Academy of Pedagogical Studies. The main goal of the Institute was to develop a theoretical basis for the education of the working youth. In 1970 the Institute was transformed into a Research Institute for general adult education. The head of the institute, Darinskii A.V., focused on the development of pedagogy alongside professional training via the combination of research and practical activity and not through a "cabinet approach" (Darinskii, 1972). This comprehensive methodological approach prescribed the necessity of analysis of the labor force and working conditions, of their dynamics and perspective. The research agenda provided for the interconnection of pedagogical studies with sociology and

psychology, so as to investigate the education of adults in the wider psycho-social context (Vershlovski, 2007). This integrated research agenda delved into the pedagogical and didactic problems encountered in adult learning, as well as in the organizational challenges in out-of-school education (Bushli, 1962; Darinskii, 1970). In this regard, L.N. Lesokhina developed a framework for the update and actualization of moral values in the process of adult education, according to which problematic teaching should be reoriented to address a wide range of issues affecting deep personal aspects. Problem identification was interrelated to subject-specific goals and contents, enabling adult educators to set the problems encountered against specific contexts, as well as to transform their views and approaches through interactive discussion (Lesokhina, 1976).

The above theoretical assumptions and empirical research created the context for perceiving lifelong learning as a multi-factorial field, affected by social, psychological, organizational, pedagogical, methodological, and technical factors (Darinskii, 1975). Researchers in the field acknowledged the necessity to investigate the diversity and heterogeneity of these factors and to determine their influence on lifelong learning, giving rise to a number of new studies on the psychology and sociology of adult education, as well as on acmeology[2.] However, until today there has neither been a comprehensive historical and theoretical analysis of the lifelong learning phenomenon, nor an overall definition of lifelong learning. Some researchers considered continuity as the overarching principle of "lifelong learning", defining it as the organization of educational practice providing systematic knowledge and skills update which does not end with the beginning of a professional career, while Vladislavlev (1978) and Darinskii (1972) perceived lifelong learning as the system of educational establishments providing education and training to citizens. It is thus apparent that in the sixties and seventies adult education became the focal point of research in Russia. Yet, definitions are still under scrutiny, with the term "pedagogics for adults" being the most widespread.

In the eighties, the attention in developed countries was concentrated on the process of implementing the concept of lifelong learning in real life, an endeavor which was reflected in relevant literature. The features distinguishing research at this time were pluralism and an attempt to capture the innovations in the field of education, as well as to align with the diverse public needs and problems encountered in all aspects of contemporary life (Busshoff, 1981; Hilton, 1981). During that time, multiple projects were launched in Russia aiming to elaborate on the concept of lifelong learning, which started to be considered as the most important resource of public and personal development. New phenomena, such as the collapse of the Soviet Union, the fall of the Iron Curtain, the Perestroyka, active development of the market, decentralization of management in educational institutes, low levels of literacy and the commercialization of education, actually turned lifelong learning into an essential means in transforming society, economy and individuals.

As highlighted by Zinchenko (1991), the critical point in the development of the lifetime learning concept in Russia was 1979, when a symposium on "Psychological-pedagogical challenges of lifelong learning" was held in Moscow. By 1989 the concept of lifelong learning was well-established under the guiding principle that learning throughout life is integral to human growth. Lifelong learning was perceived to be comprehensive in extent, individualized in time,

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[2] The science studying laws and mechanisms of development of the person during its maturity

speed and orientation, providing to everyone the chance to follow individual pathways to education and learning (The concept of lifelong education, 1989).

It ought to be noted again that in the Russian scientific context there has not been reached an agreement on the definition of lifelong learning. As mentioned above, some scholars consider continuity as the overarching principle of lifelong learning, while others perceive lifelong learning as a system of educational establishments. Filippov (1982) investigated lifelong learning as a need for personal development, outlining that lifelong learning does not come down just to increasing general and professional knowledge level, but embraces such issues as the promotion of culture among working class in a most general sense, the enrichment of citizens' political and cultural horizons, along with the contribution to economic development. Gershunsky (1987) presumed that lifelong learning should be considered as the aggregation of methods, ways, means and forms of obtaining, enhancing and extending main education, social maturity and professional integrity, developing an aesthetic attitude and enriching human culture, either through self-education or in educational establishments of any form. Verbitsky (1986), on the other hand, focused on the understanding of the continuity principle, while he emphasized that lifelong learning tends to be limited to the education of employees on a periodic basis. To evade this restriction, he suggested that the term "qualification" should be extended to pertain not only to the obtained diplomas and degrees, but also to the level of integrity and expertise, and to the ability to solve specific professional and social problems. He further advocated the need for self-education which relies on the development of a positive cognitive attitude and motivation to learn (Verbitsky, 2012).

The above efforts for the development of a deeper understanding and an integrated approach to the concept of lifelong learning were mainly based on the comparative analysis of data from a wide range of research and practices in the educational sphere. According to Vershilovsckiy (2007), contemporary conceptualizations of lifelong learning have been mainly grounded on:

- research on the different kinds and forms of education as means of social protection of different groups of the population: handicapped, unemployed, women, senior citizens, immigrants and refugees;
- results of experimental work on innovative multifunctional adult education centers - AEC;
- studying of socio-economic and cultural problems around lifelong learning;
- sociological, psychological, pedagogical aspects of higher education, as a branch of lifelong learning;
- international literature reviews on lifelong learning;
- analysis of teaching methodologies for adults and particularities of the role of the adult educator;
- special aspects of humanitarian studies for adults.

At the same time, four main types of social change have been determined - local, regional, national, global - which lead to the transformation of contents and structure of educational provision. Furthermore, the study of several socio-economic issues has revealed the complex nature of research on adult learning and urged the development of lifelong learning schemata adjusted to the Russian reality. This socio-economic analysis has actually enabled researchers to reconsider and overview the role of lifelong learning. From a process of updating knowledge, it

has been transformed into a process of "lifelong qualification" building, whilst researchers have realized that lifelong learning research cannot be conducted strictly within the framework of pedagogics; it requires an interdisciplinary approach with involvement of scientists from different disciplines, such as sociology, economics, philosophy and psychology. This has enabled a wider conceptualization of lifelong learning, while it has surfaced the contradictions encompassed in the concept.

For instance, one of the main aims of lifelong learning has been the development of functional literacy[3] by all individuals. However, research has indicated that in reality not all people are able to develop their functional literacy. According to Lesokhina (1976), the lower one's educational level is, the less he or she may be actively be engaged in lifelong learning, as a "self-defense" reaction, whereby adhering to the traditional culture, stability and integrity of moral and ideological stereotypes. Also, there has been an explicit demand for student-centered approaches to develop both professional expertise (ability to solve professional problems on the basis of obtained knowledge) and communicative expertise (cooperation beyond the professional sphere). This calls for methodologies that do not rely on sheer transmission of knowledge and skills but on the creation of such situations that may promote self-education and self-analysis, so that learning can bring about changes in personal experience, transformation of motives and goals, and critical perception of one's expertise, demanding continuous efforts for personal development (Dobrinskaya, 2000).

Consequently, by the end of the XXth century, research in Russia had introduced new andragogical approaches to education, fitted to the characteristics of adults as subjects of the educational process. Nevertheless, it is rather premature to claim that the field of lifelong learning has been exhaustively investigated both methodologically and theoretically, while its objectives need to be more profoundly specified. One of the considerable disadvantages of the concept, often resulting in limited effectiveness of the educational interventions, is the fact that the educational characteristics and patterns revolving around lifelong learning have been vaguely specified; i.e. contribution to humanism and democracy, learning for personal development, flexibility and transparency in educational provision, integration of educational structures and stages, etc.; yet, the methods, conditions and attributes of their implementation have not been clearly determined.

Current State of Lifelong Learning

The major developments in lifelong learning in the early 21st century were largely defined by Russia's accession to the Bologna process in 2003, as well as by the trends in the socio-economic progress of the country. Russia's participation in the Bologna process has been a catalyst for the modernization and reform of the Russian education system and also for the enhancement of its export potential. In general, the interaction with European universities in the framework of creating a common scientific-educational space has greatly contributed to maximizing the potential of innovation development in the country (Grudzinski, 2009).

On these grounds, the recent outcome of the implementation of the state policy to reform the system of education in the country has been the enforcement of the Federal law "On education in Russian Federation" (N 273-FZ, adopted by the State Duma, 2012), integrating both

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[3] The ability to solve arising problems in different spheres on the basis of practicable knowledge

general provision and the provision governing the individual subsystems of education (preschool, general, secondary, vocational, higher). The first of the priorities put forward is the integration of the Russian education system in the global educational market; the second one is its variability on the basis of the adopted Federal educational standards; the third priority calls for the modernization of the education system, taking into account the accumulated innovations in the educational sphere. In the explanatory note to the bill it is emphasized that this document is aimed at the creation of those legal conditions which will enable the renewal and development of the Russian education system in accordance with the modern needs of people, society and the state, the needs of an innovative economy development, and the international obligations of the Russian Federation, while at the same time it aims at ensuring stability and continuity in the development of the education system and its legislative framework (Demidov, 2012).

Zhukova (2015), in her review of the regulatory framework for reforming the Russian education system, has noted that the documents of normative and programmatic nature are of great importance in determining the ideology and priorities of state policy. Yet, the effectiveness and success of the implementation of the state policy in education is largely determined by the understanding of its positive orientation, as well as by the support and active participation of wide layers of society: professional communities and citizens as the main consumers of educational services, heads of educational institutions, and regional education authorities. However, the implementation of the state policy for reforming the system of education in Russia presents significant flaws and contradictions. Firstly, the uncertainty of the legal status of legal documents is quite problematic itself, as these documents are rather declarative; there are no specific deadlines for their realization and responsibilities for the implementation of fixed measures for individual bodies and local governments. Actually, the correlation of the content of the National doctrine, Concepts, State programs, Federal target programs, projects and national initiatives implemented, as well as the priority of their execution, are completely unclear. Furthermore, there is a serious issue in cases when the implementation period of the programmatic document has not been completed and the assessment of its results has not been conducted, and yet this document is replaced by another setting new goals and objectives. The actual problem is the insufficient legal and methodological development of strategic educational planning at all levels of the hierarchy. The dominant issue pertains to the assessment of the effectiveness of the state programs implemented, requiring the elimination of flaws in the existing formal assessment institutions, as well as the improvement of the mechanisms of evaluation (Zhukova, 2015).

Despite however the existing problems, the attempt to modernize education has led to significant changes in the structure and nature of the education system. It has become more open, accessible, massive and student oriented. During the first years of the 21st century the number of universities has significantly increased. In 2012 there were 1046 universities, out of which 58 % were public and 42 % were private. Since 2009-2010, the trend of increasing the number of universities (with the parallel decline in the number of preschool and general education establishments) was subverted. In 2013-2014 the number of higher educational establishments was reduced to 969. The main types of higher education institutions in Russia include universities, academies and institutes; it should be noted that in 2012, 69.8 % of the student population were enrolled in universities.

The analysis of the educational provision of higher education institutions in the Russian

Federation shows that lifelong learning initiatives are implemented via various types of activities (educational, scientific) and different organizational forms: work-based learning, professional development, scientific societies, graduate and postgraduate courses, doctorate degrees, etc. (Dorozhkin et al., 2014; Kondratyeva, 1989; Solodova, 2014; Testov, 2012; Zagvjazinsky, 2012, 2013). In addition to the traditional forms of training – intramural and extramural – there have also appeared some new approaches: part-time (3-4 days a week in the evening) and distance education patterns for the students receiving second higher education (3.5 years).

It is noteworthy that the number of full-time students in higher education has been reduced over the last decade from 3104 thousand in 2002-2003 to 2721 thousand in 2012-2013. Also the number of students studying in part-time schemata has decreased from 346 thousand to 230 thousand. However, the number of students, receiving distance higher education, has increased by 27%. – from 2400 thousand to 3052 thousand. The growth of distance part-time higher education has actually extended the enrollment of students, allowing them to get a higher education degree remotely, continuing thus to work and without being compelled to move. However, it is assumed that the distance education programs provided are largely characterized by lower quality (Nikolaev, 2014).

According to the Ministry of education and science of the Russian Federation, nowadays every second school graduate is guaranteed a chance to go to a university; during recent years, against the background of demographic decline, these chances have become even greater. For instance, today 75% of high school graduates are enrolled in universities in contrast to the 25% in the mid to late 20th century. The particularly high competition in certain institutions is mainly associated with their high reputation rather than with a shortage of places. In total, in 2012, the proportion of the population who had completed secondary, post-secondary, vocational, higher and postgraduate education, is considered to have been one of the highest in the world, equaling 5% and outreaching all OECD countries. However, the amount of expenses on the maintenance of educational institutions has remained relatively low, which has brought a significant negative impact on the quality of the education provided.

The system of lifelong learning in contemporary Russia thus consists of various structures of retraining and skill improvement, in the framework of which the trainee may pursue both his/her professional and personal development (Dorozhkin et al., 2014; Kondratyeva, 1989; Solodova, 2014; Testov, 2012; Zagvjazinsky, 2012, 2013). The challenges comprised in the provision of lifelong learning opportunities for all citizens are as follows:

- training, retraining and reorientation of employees with consideration of the altering, fluctuating and increasing demands of the labor market for knowledge, skills, abilities and professional expertise;
- democratization of society;
- optimizing of working conditions;
- equal opportunities for empowerment.

It can be therefore assumed that in recent years there has been a positive trend in the involvement of adults in learning, while the system of continuing education has experienced significant changes. The active integration of formal, non-formal and informal components of the educational provision has greatly contributed to this process. An increasingly important role in the processes of lifelong learning is played by both non-formal (courses, training, short programs that can be offered at any stage of education and/or professional career) and informal

(spontaneous learning occurring at any place) education, which is realized in the context of self-education in a rich cultural and educational environment (Zmeev, 1999). Albeit formal education is completed by the issuance of a recognized certificate or diploma, non-formal education, whether taking place in educational establishments or public organizations, clubs and hobby groups, or during individual lessons with a tutor or coach, is usually not accompanied by the delivery of certification. As Maslova (2014) outlines, non-formal education is not accompanied by a certificate entitling the graduate to be engaged in some professional activity. Usually, such education is connected with amateur classes, with the desire to broaden ones' understandings, knowledge and skills either for professional or personal reasons. As far as informal education is concerned, Russian researchers tend to consider it as a socially-oriented, dynamic, open, mobile element of the system of professional and/or personal development that may be largely responsive to the needs of adults. It may actually act as an independent and/or additional form to formal education, catering for compensatory educational provision (Roiblatt, 2013).

Below there are provided some examples of implementation of non-formal and informal educational projects in various educational fields in Russia.

Non-formal & Informal Learning Projects

As example of non-formal education can be considered a set of programs addressed to teachers with the aim to contribute to the improvement of their professional skills. They are delivered in vocational development institutions or in the form of annual competitions: teacher of the year, best school of Russia, best in-service trainer, educational festivals, teachers' pedagogical reading, innovative pedagogical marathons, educational retraining, a modern school leader, corporate training, etc. (Kopnov, 2015). It is noteworthy that these initiatives are completed with the issuance of relevant certificates, in connection with the implementation of a new policy concerning teachers' portfolios (Makarenya et al., 2011). In this respect, there is an example of an in-formal learning program that should be also outlined. It concerns an innovative Russian system of certification, based on software products "1C: Enterprise" (2013), motivating trainees to learn as this may increase their attractiveness in the labor market due to the issuance of a certificate that validates their learning.

The first University for non-formal education in Russia has been implemented under the project "Biryusa 2015". The University aims to help young people develop relevant competencies for leading successful lives at present and in the future. Under conditions that simulate production, students are taught leadership skills by being in the role of leaders of medium businesses and using the principles of the world championship on business management, "Global Management Challenge" (2015). Furthermore, Togliatti State University (TSU) became the winner of the first competition in the world of massive open online courses (MOOCS), receiving the EdCrunch Award 2015. The University won the competition in "additional informal education", presenting a course intended for teaching staff at all levels of education who wish to improve their general user ICT competence and media literacy (Miheeva, 2015). The idea and the final course program were determined by the UNESCO recommendation on the "Structure of ICT competence of teachers". During studying the students may improve their computer skills, learn to work with software tools, online resources and tools for creating educational and didactic materials, acquire the ability to apply digital photography, video shooting and audio recordings in educational activities, etc. The program has been running since July 2014. About 2,000 trainees

have participated during this time, while 114 of them passed the final examination (Tomsk State University).

In March 2015, the program «in-service trainer» in WorldSkills Russia was implemented in the Ural Federal District with the aim to introduce new and effective teaching tools and technologies that may enhance the training level of in-service trainers, actively engaging trainees in professional work. The project also involved the comprehensive assessment of the scope of secondary vocational education and training (VET) and comparative analysis of professional skills contests in the Russian regions with the aim to identify existing organizational and competitive challenges (Kopnov, 2015).

At the same period, "the week of informal education" was held in Irkutsk, and over two thousand people took part in its various events: lectures, workshops, educational hours, educational seminars, promotions, creative workshops, and concert programs – in total more than 250 events were held on different venues of the city. Work at the sites revealed the immense potential of learning for people of all ages and social status. Participants learned how to gain new skills and knowledge, to improve their cultural level and to spend their leisure creatively. For instance, they attended master classes in craft and needlework, in dog training and in animal care, in yoga and healthy lifestyle, in international communication, in environmental games, in Alpine skiing, in intellectual games. "The Week of informal education" was firstly held in 2013 as part of the educational non-profit project "Irkutsk is a learning city". The project ever since has aimed at promoting educational activities for the residents of the regional center, at the identification of new educational resources, at the involvement of citizens in new forms of education and at improving the quality of life for inhabitants. Two years of project implementation counts about 1.5 thousand of workshops, lectures, training sessions, which were attended by over 18 thousand people (IrkutskMedia.ru).

The so-called open universities can also serve as examples of non-formal education in Russia. In 2012, there were 14 open universities in Moscow, St. Petersburg and other cities. The prototype of the modern Russian open university is the Moscow City People's University named after A.L. Shanyavsky, established in 1908. It was accessible to everyone, as to enter it one did not need any certificates or documents, except his/her identity card. The mere purpose of the University was to enable "men and women, Russians and non-Russians – anyone who wants to learn" to obtain knowledge (Five Corners). Yet, not all of the 14 open universities today are accessible to all citizens. The closest in essence to the first open university are the Perm Open University and Petrozavodsk Open University, delivering lectures on different topics for different audiences. The example of these universities was also followed by the Moscow State University (MSU), Pirogov Russian National Research Medical University (RNRMU), Russian State Vocational Pedagogical University (RSVPU) and many others which implement a cultural and educational project named "University Saturdays" for city residents. Finally, an innovative type of open university appeared in 2013 in Izhevsk, whereby citizens established the Association for City Development (ARGO), which is a platform for civil interaction between key urban communities in order to promote the city's attractiveness and improve the quality of life of citizens. One of the main directions of the ARGO activity is the implementation of educational programs aimed at the development of social capital. In addition to the public lectures, the organizers involve residents, Russian and international experts in the implementation of joint socially significant projects that may enhance social interaction.

In light of the cases presented above, it can be thus claimed that non-formal and informal education in Russia is becoming more and more widespread and popular within the context of the lifelong learning development.

Modern Understandings of Lifelong Learning

It is widely accepted that the level of professional expertise on one hand and the level of individual development on the other, determine the degree of economical and social development in a country. Hence, education needs to follow the rapid change in contemporary technologies, while it should also cater for compensatory-adaptive patterns of learning within the framework of lifelong learning (Tatarkin, 2012). In accordance with the UNESCO International Institute for Education, the main principles of lifelong learning nowadays pertain to humanistic and democratic education, integrity of formal and informal educational institutions both of traditional and contemporary types, flexibility of curriculums, alternative approaches to the organization of the educational process, special focus on the education of women, youth and incapacitated people, independency and self-orientation of education, connection of learning to the personal, professional and social interests of individuals.

Under conditions of dynamic socioeconomic transformations in Russia, the development of a flexible lifelong learning system is thus an utmost priority for ensuring innovative development and enhancing the competitiveness of the state. In contemporary settings, lifelong learning actually needs to address three forms of continuity: continuity in personal development, continuity in educational processes and continuity in educational institutes (Kondratyeva, 1989). Furthermore, the principles underpinning the organization of the educational process call for uniformity of educational programs, multilevelness and openness of educational provision, transition to a learning outcomes model, diversity of teaching methods, mastering of new pedagogical technologies supported by information and telecommunication resources, active participation of trainees, and personalization of education.

Within this context we may distinguish four basic models of lifelong learning provision in educational establishments in Russia (Dorozhkin et al. 2014)
- a career boosting model, comprising supplementary professional programs and vocational guidance;
- a professional development model, providing a wide range of professional programs for working adults;
- a remedial education model, providing opportunities to adults to complete all levels of education up to higher education;
- an interdisciplinary model based on networking and interaction among educational establishments and industrial enterprises.

In the following section there is provided a case study of a research and education network of educational institutions and industrial enterprises aimed to promote lifelong learning development in Russia.

Experience of A Research and Education Network

In the context of implementation of the Federal Statute № 273 "On education in the RF" providing the normative framework for the regulation of the education sector, the establishment of research and education networks has gradually become one of the important mechanisms of

lifelong learning development in Russia. The design of such networks is aimed at enhancing of ability of educational institutions of different types to solve any problems emerging by providing education to a wide range of trainees. These "lifelong learning systems" can be defined as a complex of educational institutions and industrial enterprises interested in human potential enhancement, capable of satisfying the lifelong educational needs and demands of the population. At the same time, as open systems, they can interact actively with the socioeconomic environment in which they operate.

On these grounds, a research and education network of educational institutions and industrial enterprises was developed at the facilities of the Institute of Education Management (Davydova, 2013; Fedorov et al., 2014). The main tasks performed under this research and education network are the following:

- control of information flows;
- continuous professional development of educators through online learning;
- practical assistance to participants in support of innovation processes;
- promotion of the use of innovative pedagogical technologies;
- increase of employees' motivation to participate in lifelong learning.

Developing such research and education networks may have multiple advantages in several spheres, namely economic (reduced training expenses); pedagogical (education becomes more appealing, technologically advanced and individualized); ergonomic (educators and moderators may distribute the classroom time on a convenient schedule, a flexible schedule allows to improve skills without interrupting work); informational (increases the availability of modern software tools and new educational technologies); communicational (increases the number of interested participants and promotes active interaction). Indeed, the network brings together professional groups, teachers, organizations and enterprises, releasing, thus, new resources for the development of interaction among participants. The main elements of the network interaction pertain to information exchange, networking expertise and provision of open educational programs.

Research and education networks operate as virtual organizations, providing optimal conditions for the development of lifelong learning. Any virtual organization has a dual nature of capital: physical and intellectual. However, its specificity is determined by the intangible assets available (knowledge and information technology), which allow the transfer of activities in the virtual (electronic, informational) space. In effect, in the post-industrial economy the free exchange of results of scientific research is regarded as the main factor of increasing innovation, enhancing competitiveness and shortening the time of development of innovative projects (Fedorov et al. 2014).

Fig. 1 depicts the scheme of interaction of participants of a virtual research and education network. The moderator, in this case RSVPU, is responsible for the maintenance and implementation of cooperation. The tasks of the moderator are related to the study of the resources and competences of members in the network, identifying strengths and weaknesses, planning and developing new services and promoting features that increasingly bring closer the educational community and the members of the network.
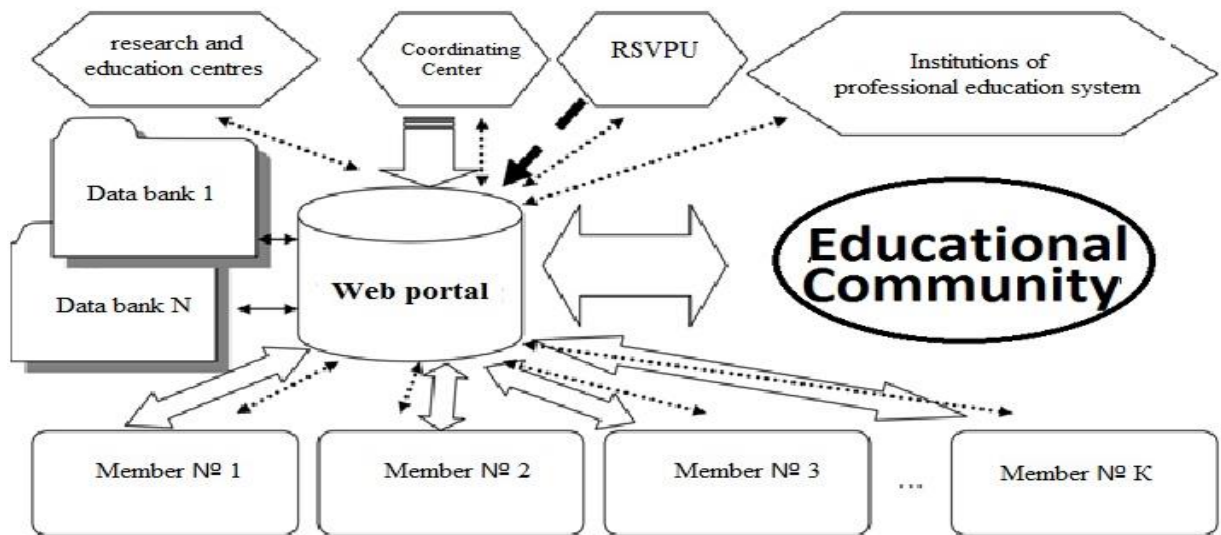
	Awareness interaction	
	The exchange of results of scientific research	
	Control and corrective actions	
	Data reading and entry	
	Technical support	

Fig.1. Scheme of interaction of participants of the research and education network portal

Network administrators of the organizations participating in the network community actually act as accelerators in the organizational process. They help to form a strategic partnership, to organize the tasks within the educational system and to identify new opportunities of activity. Furthermore, their duty is to promote the networking concept and cooperation, to organize activities for various groups in different fields and to establish links with the industry. In 2011 the project described in this paper was awarded the Grand Prix of the all-Russian professional competition "Innovation in Education" (Moscow).

Ultimately, the above example demonstrates the formation of a new paradigm of higher education institutions in relation to man and society, as well as a change in the nature of interaction between academia and society on the basis of ensuring continuity of education, of promoting the professional and personal development of personnel, and of creating a rich learning environment enabling people to learn throughout life. It could be thus assumed that the guiding principles for enabling higher education institutions to substantially promote lifelong learning are as follows.

1) Providing for holistic approaches in a wide range of educational initiatives seeking to develop the whole personality: compensatory education (programs aiming to update

outdated knowledge, abilities and skills), adaptive education (development of effective training programs taking into account the realities of scientific and technical progress and the requirements of the labor market), developmental education (taking into consideration individual characteristics and aiming at developing creativity, initiative, etc.) (see Kuznetsova, 2004).

2) Offering educational opportunities suited to the individual, taking into account his or her potential, psychological characteristics, interests and demands (see Dremina et al, 2015).

3) Organizing creative professional activities addressed to adult educators and faculty members of educational institutions.

4) Promoting interconnection, interaction and networking in the implementation of lifelong learning.

5) Conducting systematic assessment of lifelong learning outcomes.

Conclusions

It is evident from the above analysis that lifelong learning remains a priority issue among the contemporary scientific and technological developments and the political, socio-economic and cultural changes taking place both globally and in Russia. In effect, the concept and practices revolving around lifelong learning have been the subject of profound reflection and extensive research by philosophers, sociologists, educators, economists and other scientists. Alongside the process of global integration, the Russian lifelong learning system serves a dual role: actively adopt innovative experiences from different countries, while also contribute to the development of a world educational order by contributing its experimental and theoretical groundwork. Currently three main approaches to lifelong learning can be distinguished in the Russian education system:

- a traditional approach, in the context of which lifelong learning is regarded as a means to make up for knowledge and skills updates in response to technological advancement, as well as in order to combat functional illiteracy;

- a lifelong and lifewide learning approach, proponents of which consider learning as integral to the human nature;

- a comprehensive development approach, under which the full development of the individual is pursued, addressing his or her biological, social, cultural and spiritual needs and potential.

In this context, the modern trends in the delivery of lifelong learning interventions in Russia include the transition from lectures to individualized learning; from academic content to learning in the workplace; from conventional learning to problem-based education and team-based learning; from full-time study to distance education.

In general, we can posit that the education systems in almost all developed countries around the world by the beginning of the 21st century have undergone intense reforms to incorporate lifelong learning schemata. However, due to different worldviews, ideological approaches, historical experiences, and pedagogical traditions, reforms in each country largely differ in character, depth, and pace of transformations. Hence, the effectiveness of the development of an integrated lifelong learning system in Russia largely depends on the degree of openness in its interaction and sharing of experience with other national systems.

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The Role of Zimbabwean Museums in Creating National Identity during Post-Colonial Era: A Case Study of Zimbabwe Military Museum

Nelson Jagero, Walter K. T. Chisedzi, Nevermore Sithole & Shadreck Simbarashe Chitima

The Role of Zimbabwean Museums in Creating National Identity during Post-Colonial Era: A case Study of Zimbabwe Military Museum

Nelson Jagero[1], Walter K. T. Chisedzi[2], Nevermore Sithole[3]* & Shadreck Simbarashe Chitima[4]

[1]Professor, Chuka University, Faculty of Human Resource and Education P.O. Box 109 Chuka Kenya, [2]Kent M. Weeks Archives Hall, Africa University, P.O. Box 1320, Mutare, Zimbabwe, [3]Technical Services Librarian at Africa University, P.O. Box 1320, Mutare, Zimbabwe, [4]Lecturer in Archaeology, Cultural Heritage and Museum Studies at Midlands State University, P. Bag 9055, Gweru.
Email: jageronelson@yahoo.com, walterchisedzi@gmail.com, chisedziw@africau.edu nchardz@gmail.com, sitholen@africau.edu, chitimass@msu.ac.zw.

Abstract
The study evaluated the role of Zimbabwe Military Museum's (ZMM) exhibitions in the creation and portrayal of national identity during post-colonial period. The research focused mainly on the museum's collections, themes, events, interpretation and presentation of exhibitions in portraying Zimbabwe's identity after independence up to present. This was done on the basis that most of the displays at ZMM pursue colonial ideologies whilst at the same time undermine African identity. The researchers used a qualitative research approach; the data collection methods and instruments included interviews, focus group discussions and desktop survey. This was performed in order to obtain ample information and testimonial evidence concerning audiences' perceptions of the Zimbabwe Military Museum's programs in relation to national identity. Research findings demonstrated that the ZMM does not systematically provide for

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[1] Professor, Chuka University, Faculty of Human Resource and Education P.O. Box 109 Chuka Kenya, Email: jageronelson@yahoo.com

[2] Kent M. Weeks Archives Hall, Africa University, P.O. Box 1320, Mutare, Zimbabwe, Email: walterchisedzi@gmail.com ; chisedziw@africau.edu

[3] * Corresponding Author, Technical Services Librarian at Africa University, P.O. Box 1320, Mutare, Zimbabwe, Email: nchardz@gmail.com; sitholen@africau.edu Corresponding Author

[4] Lecturer in Archaeology, Cultural Heritage and Museum Studies at Midlands State University, P. Bag 9055, Gweru, Email: chitimass@msu.ac.zw

exhibitions that may address and create national identity, but instead it focuses on exhibitions that pursue colonial ideologies; in effect, colonial traits are evident in collections, themes, events and interpretation of displays. In conclusion if the museum does not take action and redress colonial traits, the audiences will continue to disengage, get distant and withdraw from the museum and its activities.

Keywords: Museums, National Identity, Post Colonial Era, Zimbabwean Military Museum.

Introduction
According to Mulindwa et al. (2012), as stated in The Politics of Memory: The Role of Museums in Africa in the New Millennium, published in November 24, 2012, by the time most African colonies attained independence they had established national museums, but the majority of these museums were founded by colonial administrators. This does not imply that Africans had no interest in preserving their heritage, but it was due to the fact that the colonial powers controlled and influenced every administration in the colonies. As a result they decided on what to collect and display in the museums, most of which endorsed a sense of cultural and national inferiority of the colonies. However, after decolonization most of the collections, programs, themes, interpretation and presentation of displays in Zimbabwean state museums have accomplished little or no development in terms of creation of national identity. This clearly justifies the existence of a strand highly questioning museums and their capability to address national identity in the post-colonial era.

According to Zedde (1998), as highlighted in *Societies in conflict: Museums and the creation of "national identity"*, the black majority had restricted admission in museums as well as other educational privileges, both reflecting and underlining state policies of discrimination and inferiority of the black people. The white settlers' regime instructed that black Rhodesian culture and identity was not to be displayed in museums, in an effort to strengthen discrimination and foster a culture of inferiority. These policies were extended to collecting, preserving and displaying of black majority material culture (all discouraged and purposefully underfunded). In the post-colonial era, Zimbabwean museums should have taken an active role to redress former policies towards collection, preservation and exhibition of the material culture which characterizes the Zimbabwean society. It is indeed the role of the museums to offer an opportunity for the conscious creation and projection of national identity through various programs and displays so that they become relevant to and representative of the society they serve, especially during the post-colonial period. Therefore, it is from this viewpoint that our research attempts to examine the role that museums play in the creation and portrayal of national identity through collections, research, displays and public programs.

As mentioned above, most of the programs that are run by the National Museums and Monuments of Zimbabwe (NMMZ) are still biased towards the colonial era, pursuing colonial ideologies. As regards the Zimbabwe Military Museum, most of the exhibitions, nature of collections, even the themes on exhibitions, interpretation and presentation of displays have been inherited from the white settlers and little or no development has been made to restore national identity. Instead much of its activities and events still pursue colonial supremacy. Most of the collections at ZMM comprise armoured vehicles and rifles among others. Also, there is little interpretation on displays which show African collections as compared to the narration and interpretation accompanying white settlers' displays; even the language used is interpreted in

English. Further, the themes of events, such as temporary exhibitions, do not actually promote national identity on the basis that the museum is still showcasing collections used by the settlers; therefore most of its activities are still rooted in the colonial era.

This obviously raises weighty questions about museums; whose heritage are they preserving and to whom is it presented? Yet, they are supposed to be creating and portraying a national identity which was considered as inferior by white settlers. It is thus evident that museums have a significant role to play in the development of their communities and nations, through showcasing collections and exhibitions that identify and portray national identity, especially during the post-colonial era.

Statement of the Problem

Decades after attainment of independence, Zimbabwean state museums are still rooted in the colonial era. Most of the collections, themes, programs, interpretation and presentation of collections at the Zimbabwe Military Museum have colonial traits and are still pursuing colonial ideologies. Even temporary exhibitions accommodated by the museum showcase collections which were used by the settlers, bearing no relevance to contemporary societies, whilst their themes do not relate to national identity. As a result some stakeholders are gradually withdrawing and distancing themselves from the museum. In fact, due to the colonial traits in collections and the museum's persistence in pursuing colonial ideologies, society at large has developed a lack of appreciation in some of the activities carried out by the museum.

Objectives

The objectives of this research were:

1. To identify what the museum has accomplished in addressing issues of national identity.

2. To make a comparative analysis on what other countries have done in addressing issues of national identity during the post-colonial era.

3. To determine the perceptions of different audiences to the ZMM towards the creation of national identity.

Significance of the Study

This present research may be helpful to the Zimbabwe Military Museum (ZMM) and other state museums as a stock-taking exercise on how far they have gone in addressing the imbalances between presentation of black history and white history, through collections, themes, interpretation and presentation of exhibitions. It may also bring light on the roles that it has in creating and promoting national identity after colonisation. The study will also assist the institution to realise what the public expects from it, helping it to improve on collections, interpretation, and presentation of exhibitions which create a sense of belonging to one's nation.

Literature Review
History of Zimbabwe Military Museum

The Zimbabwe Military Museum focuses on research and other musicological endeavours in the military field, thereby liaising with the army, air force and police. The Museum opened its doors to the public on the 24th of January 1974 as the Midlands Museum, which was changed to the

current name Zimbabwe Military Museum in 1985. The Zimbabwe Military Museum is administrated by the National Museum and Monuments of Zimbabwe. The National Museums and Monuments of Zimbabwe are governed by a legal framework known as the National Museums and Monuments Act which is Chapter 25:11 of the Zimbabwean Act (nmmz@mweb.co.zw).

Apart from the military displays, there is also the police gallery which exhibits the trend of development in the police, starting from the inception of the British South African Police (BSAP) through to the present Zimbabwe Republic Police (ZRP). Also the museum has the aviation gallery which includes Rhodesian war heroes who took part during the World War 1. There is an artillery hanger that exhibits a representative collection of artillery pieces by the Rhodesian settlers, World War 1, Federation period and colonial Rhodesia up to present Zimbabwe. The military museum also has the Guinea Fowl Gallery which traces the history of Guinea Fowl and the open-air museum which has the armoured vehicle hanger exhibits and typical armoured vehicles which were used during the Second World War.

Themes and Events at Zimbabwe Military Museum
The Zimbabwe Military Museum has the role of creating and portraying national identity to its diverse audience through themes and events (which are all encompassed in exhibitions). During colonialism themes and events that were brought up in museum exhibitions were Eurocentric in character and generally related to the lives of the notable people of the past. Thus these themes and events asserted notions of white identity, race and supremacy. Smith (2004) states that despite what transpired during pre-colonial period, museum institutions are there to create a common ground among diverse groups found within the margins of new nation states. Thus, museums, in precise, offer an opportunity for conscious creation and projection of national identity through their displays so that they represent the societies they serve, especially during the post-colonial period. However, this seems to be in contrast to what Smith (2004) mentioned, on the basis that during post-colonial period the Zimbabwe Military Museum's themes resemble white superiority, most of the themes on display are mainly of battles which were fought by the whites, whilst some of the themes put on display which show African collections do not construct national identity.

National Identity
Mclean (2005:1-4) states that the widening debates on identity have opened up new challenges for the museum profession. At the macro level, the transformation of identity has taken place within the backdrop of decolonization, imperial atrophy, globalization and the decline of the nation-state. At the national level, the challenge becomes one of reconciliation and of promoting national integration within the plurality and diversity of identity. Through the authority vested in them, museums authenticate and promote identities via the presentation of heritage. National museums are implicit in the construction of national identities, and the ways in which they voice or silence difference can reflect and influence contemporary perceptions of identities within the national frame.

McLean (1998: 244-252) also reiterates that the circuit of the culture model ultimately deals with identity. Identities derive from a multiplicity of sources which may conflict. Woodward (1997) has identified a number of factors which need to be addressed when considering issues

of identity, namely difference, social and material conditions, and the ultimate issue, identification, or the positions which people take up and identify with. Identity is often claimed to be fixed and unchanged, thus creating a sense of belongingness. These claims may be based on nature, such as for example, race and kinship in some versions of ethnicity. Often though, the claims are based on an essentialist view of history and of the past, wherein history is constructed or represented as an unchanging truth. Woodward further suggests that, 'the heritage industry seems to present only one version'. In fact, identity is relational and difference is established by symbolic marking in relation to others.

Similarly, it has been suggested that there is no unitary privileged history, only different histories. If we acknowledge there are different versions of the past, then we need to negotiate between them. But by asserting the plurality of positions, the question is whether these are equal or whether one historical inheritance has greater validity. Relating this to museums, Foster (1991: 235-260) suggests that because historical memory is a construction, struggles over the definition of the nation as community will inevitably be marked by struggles over the constitution of an authorized collectively held past. Further, O'Neill (1994: 9-19; 1995) has suggested that 'museums tend to show a past with few internal tensions, without looking at how people negotiate their identity with the prevailing culture'.

Therefore in this context Woodward (1997:1-7) is of the view that national identity is a person's distinctiveness and sense of belonging to one nation, a feeling one shares with a group of people, regardless of citizenship or status. He further states that national identity is not an inborn trait, various studies have shown that a person's national identity is a direct result of the presence of elements from the common points in people's daily lives, these including national symbols, national colours, the nation's history, culture among others. In this context, most African states are made up of different ethnic groups. Therefore it is difficult to come up with one culture, tradition or religion as a nation's identity. However, one has to note that even if there are different ethnic groups, there are certain characteristics that these groups have in common, For instance different ethnic groups made use of bows and arrows, spears, appeasing ancestors, traditional dances and traditional regalia among others. Therefore it is from these common characteristics and elements that we derive a nation's identity.

Museums and National Identity

AFRICOM is an organization of museums which was formed in October 1999 in Lusaka, Zambia. Therefore, it aims to contribute to the constructive improvement of African communities by inspiring the role of museums as creators of national identity and as representatives of cultural cohesion. The AFRICOM organisation was a product of the conferences planned by the International Council of Museums (ICOM) in Benin, Ghana and Togo in November 1991 *(AFRICOM, Documenting African Collections*, ICOM report). These gatherings were targeted to address the role and the relevance of museums in the societies they serve, especially in addressing issues which promote culture and national identity on the African continent. From this angle, it is crystal clear that museums are the ambassadors of reconstructing states which are deeply rooted in colonial origins.

Research Methodology

Qualitative research methods were used to obtain data from people concerning the collections,

themes, events, interpretation and presentation of exhibitions at the ZMM. Research tools included desktop surveys, interviews and focus group discussions.

Targeted Population

The population consisted of various groups of people from which data were sought to be collected. The targeted population of this research included the Zimbabwe Military Museum employees (curator), Zimbabwe National Army members, Police force members, Zimbabwe Air Force marshals, war veterans, teachers, and selected members who represent the public. Researchers selected the Zimbabwe National Army and Police force members because the museum houses most of the collections which were used during and after colonization. Also, since most of these uniformed forces members and war veterans took part during colonization and post-colonial period, they have a deep knowledge of the country. Therefore, researchers wanted to identify how they feel and their perceptions towards the museum collections, themes, events and displays in reconstructing and portraying a national identity.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

A sample is a representation from a population for the purpose of determining ideas or opinions of the whole population. Purposive sampling techniques were implemented. Purposive sampling was performed because it was not practical to get information from every single individual in the population; therefore specific groups of people were targeted for this research. The researchers included different groups of audiences on the basis that they have better knowledge about Zimbabwe as a nation and they know how national identity can be restored through various activities done by the museum. A minimum number of 35 individuals were expected to participate in this study. It included the Zimbabwe Military Museum staff (5) mainly the curators (Assistant Curator, Senior Curator), the Zimbabwe National Army (5), Zimbabwe Republic Police (5) including the Officer in charge and other officers, Zimbabwe Air Force marshals (3), War Veterans (5), teachers (5), (2) members from the general public and (3) college students. However, out of all the targeted participants not all of them managed to take part in this research due different reasons.

Research Instruments

Research instruments are tools used for data collection. Interviews, focus group discussions and desktop surveys were used in this study.

Desktop Survey

Desktop survey intended to identify what other scholars have written pertaining the role of the museum in promoting our culture and national identity through exhibitions. This included published and unpublished material in archives in the museums, internet, and reports. The survey was of great importance on the basis that researchers consulted other sources to get to know what had been written or done by other scholars to avoid duplication of research.

Interviews

Researchers made use of face to face interviews, on the grounds that they are flexible and they allow clarity on issues that need further clarification. Both structured and open ended questions

were used to acquire data, whereby some questions were sent to the interviewees in advance so that they could prepare for the interview in order to provide accurate information.

Focus Group Discussions

To undertake this study, the researchers also conducted discussions in an interactive group setting wherein participants were free to talk with other group members. The data gathered from participants reflected their opinions or perceptions towards the creation and portrayal of national identity through exhibitions.

Data Presentation, Analysis and Discussions

Perceptions of the Uniformed Forces

From the interviews and focus group discussions contacted with the members of the uniformed forces, researchers collected data which show that the museum is taking little action in constructing national identity through its collections, themes, interpretation and presentation of displays. It can be noted that the uniformed forces are of the view that only a few collections of African fighters such as Mbuya Nehanda, Sekuru kaguvi, Lobengula among others are showcased, thus it seems as if there are the only people who took part during the liberation struggle; as a national museum it should collect, interpret and present detailed history of everything which transpired during the struggle, especially those events which were accelerated by Africans. It was also stated that only few African weapons which were used by our ancestors were displayed in the museum. Conversely, most of its collections mainly comprise rifles and armoured vehicles which were used by the whites; yet it should show to the new generation all the collections used by our ancestors before the coming of whites. From the collections, themes and events which create national identity African superiority on invention of these collections would also be created, thus also creating national identity.

Perceptions of the Midlands Community (General Public, Students, Teachers)

The researchers selected a few people as representatives of the community. They view museums as places of enjoyment rather than institutions, which provide both entertainment and at same time portraying of national identity. From the results gathered from interviews and focus group discussions, the community is of the view that the exhibitions are still the same for a long period of time. The exhibitions are more of enjoyment rather than instilling any sense of identity to the public; for instance if you visit the museum with your child at the end of the tour he/she would conclude that the displays were interesting with much emphasis on the displays of guns and nothing special about the displays which show African collections. Thus, our study has depicted that the public view museum displays as not addressing any issues which create national identity.

Discussion

From the interviews and focus group discussions, the researchers noted that different groups of people have diverse views in relation to the collections, themes, events, interpretation and presentation of exhibitions at the military museum. The study sought to have an insight on how they think about the museum programs and activities in relation to creation and portrayal of national identity. The curators viewed their collections, themes, events, interpretation and presentation of exhibitions as balanced and also creating national identity. The curators were of

this view on the basis that after independence they removed some of the collections, themes and displays which were pursuing colonial ideologies and replaced them with African collections which show liberation struggle prominent figures such as Mbuya Nehanda, Sekuru Kaguvi, and Mkwati among others. Also they believed that their collections, themes, events and displays create, instil and portray national identity on the grounds that apart from the African prominent figures there are other displays which show African weapons which were used during the liberation struggle (such as knobkerries, bows and arrows, machetes, spears, bombs made from animal waste etc.) apart from guns.

In line with the above, other respondents, such as teachers, think that the collections, themes and presentation of displays to a certain extent present national identity and to another extent pursue colonial ideologies. This is based on the fact that there are some representations of African culture (weapons, traditional regalia), and some representations of the white culture (guns, uniforms, only to mention a few). From the study, it was clear that even though there are displays of both 'black and white' it is not equal; therefore there is need to create balance in terms of collections, themes and displays.

However other groups such as the uniformed forces, war veterans and the public are of the opinion that the collections, themes and presentation of displays as doing little or nothing in terms of creating national identity. Uniformed forces were complaining that most of the collections at ZMM comprise armoured vehicles and rifles; also there is little interpretation on displays which exhibit African collections as compared to the narration and interpretation on white settlers' displays; even the language used is interpreted in colonial language. Therefore, it is deemed that most of its activities are still rooted in the colonial era. It was stressed that there is need to decolonize the museum on the basis that most of its collections were inherited from the white settlers who viewed our culture and national identity as inferior. Hence, in order for the museum to effectively address issues which construct national identity participants suggested their participation in all its activities, this including taking part in collecting and coming up with themes, interpretation and presentation of collections in displays.

Conclusion

Most museums in Africa were established according to colonial influences. Therefore, it is essential for museums to question the structure in which they operate to ensure that they do not retain the colonial traits in their practices, specifically when they claim to have evaded colonizers' cultures. Museums should reconcile identity if they are to make certain that audiences continue to visit their establishments and not consider them as mere places of relaxation. Moreover, objects in museums are cyphers of intellectual ideas and show links with certain persons. Therefore, museums are required to collect, interpret and present objects that reconcile with their audience, so that a sense of ownership and identity is created since they safeguard cultural wealth of the nation.

Moreover, it is the role of the museum to create and portray national identity through exhibitions; thence, the ZMM should undertake programs and events that create national identity. Museums in precise offer an opportunity for conscious creation and projection of national identity through their displays so that they represent the societies they serve, especially during post-colonial period. There is need to consider their themes in relation to national identity on both temporary and permanent exhibitions.

Recommendations
Interpretation and Presentation of Exhibitions at Zimbabwe Military Museum
The Zimbabwe Military Museum should ensure that all interpretations should be balanced in terms of language, so that everybody will understand the message being conveyed by the collections in the display. There is need to provide more information on displays which show African collections so that visitors and various stakeholders would be satisfied by the information accompanying an object; this could create national identity.

Collections at Zimbabwe Military Museum
Since most of the collections at the ZMM mainly comprise objects which were inherited from the white settlers, they are still pursuing colonial ideologies; yet, ZMM should foster the creation and portrayal of national identity in the post-colonial era through its collections. Therefore, the museum should redress its policies towards collections. It should at least cater for collecting objects which construct national identity (which was actually believed by the white settlers to be inferior), whilst the representation of collections should be balanced and suited to the different audiences of the museum.

Financial Resources
There is need to source funds for the collection of objects and the update of themes which create and portray national identity. This is of primary importance, considering that museums are regarded as establishments that have nothing quantitatively to put back into the national treasury; therefore they have always come last in government spending priorities. According to ICOM code of ethics (2001-2004) on *1.9*, it is stated that the governing body (NMMZ) should make sure that there are enough funds to carry out activities and programs of the museum. Income generating activities should not compromise the standards of the institution or its public. Therefore the museum should formulate strategies that can pump money into the institution. For instance, the military museum to successfully carry out all its activities, can source funds through fundraising dinners or raffles. From these money generating activities, it can sustain itself and at least bring up a balance in its displays in portraying national identity.

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Political Speeches and National Integration: A Pragmatic Analysis of Selected Political Speeches in Kenya

Wangatiah, I. R., David Ongarora & Peter Matu

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Wangatiah, I. R., David Ongarora & Peter Matu

Wangatiah, I. R. Makata Department of Language and Literature Education, Masinde Muliro
University of Science and Technology, Kenya
Email: wabgatiah@yahoo.com

Abstract

This paper analyses political speeches as a factor in national integration in Kenya. Kenya is a country characterized by diverse cultures reflected in the forty-two tribes that comprise the Kenyan people. For meaningful development to be realized, it is theorized that the Kenyan people should harmoniously work as one. From a sociolinguistic perspective, language has an ideological function in fostering national integration as an ingredient for national development. Politicians in Kenya and the world over constitute the ruling class that is characterized by use of a linguistic genre described as political discourse. This paper argues that as an elite class within society, politicians in Kenya use political speeches to influence the perceptions of the rank and file while consolidating power and influence over the people. The political ideology that the speeches inculcate among the listeners is one that weakens the national integration fabric, and consequently national development. From a Critical Language Studies perspective, the paper applies Relevance Theory by Sperber and Wilson (1986 & 1995) and Wilson and Sperber (2004) in a pragmatic interpretation of speeches by politicians in Kenya to demonstrate that, as a communicative event, political speeches in Kenya largely advance a selfish political agenda than disseminate a national agenda on integration and thus, national development. The speeches used in this study were collected through a participant-observer mode. They were captured and recorded using a high sensitivity digital recorder at political rallies during the Bungoma County senatorial by-election in December, 2013.

Keywords: Political Speeches, Political Discourse, National Integration and National Development

Introduction

"...The problem of social disintegration is so recurrent in Africa that the existence of many of its countries as viable national entities is subject to doubt. The threats to national cohesion assume

many forms, including ethnic, regional, religious and class cleavages, to name a few..."

Nik Abdul Rashid bin Nik Abdul Majid
Executive Director of Meleka Museums Corporation

This excerpt provides the basis of the central argument in this paper that Kenya, being one of the nations in Africa, is challenged in its existence as a viable national entity due to the threats on national integration. The success of a nation in inculcating the spirit of national integration among its citizens is an indicator of its advances in meaningful development. While most nations emphasize strategies towards national integration, not much attention is given to acts which sow seeds of discord among its citizens. From a linguistic perspective, this paper uses the Kenyan case to justify the argument that the language of politicians can be a destructive tool against the spirit of national integration, thus undermining national development.

National integration is a complex and elusive concept to achieve. Societies that yearn to achieve national integration have developed strategies to coarse people into embracing national integration. In Kenya, the observance of national events such as Mashujaa day is ideologically supposed to whip citizens into a feeling of national integration. The main aim of such national events is to inculcate and enhance among the Kenyan people feelings of national unity, peace, affection and brotherhood having emerged from diverse ethnic, religious, political and economic backgrounds. Whereas these diversities should be appreciated as a source of strength for the Kenyan people to integrate, opportunists take advantage of these diversities to whip up resentful emotions amongst Kenyans. It is from this perspective that this paper looks language use in politics as an impediment to national integration.

In Kenya, the actors of the multi-party politics have shaped partisan politics into a form that threatens the growth of national integration; that the desire by Kenyans to support competing political parties and interests during an electioneering period leaves the country more fragmented than ever before. This, according to Rashid (2013) threatens the continued existence of the nation as a viable unitary state. It is therefore the purpose of this paper to demonstrate pragmatically that political speeches in Kenya weaken the spirit of national integration.

The Interaction Between National Integration and National Development

The concept of national integration seems not to have been given a lot of attention by scholars given the limited availability of publications on it. The word 'integrity' originates from French intégrité or Latin integritas, meaning integral, and integrates. The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary defines 'integrity' as the state of being whole and undivided. According to Etzioni (1965), national integration refers to a sense of territorial nationality which overshadows or eliminates subordinate parochial loyalties. Kaur (2013) observes that National integration is a complex concept with social, political, religious, regional and economic dimensions. The core principle of national integration is to create ideological unity and awareness about 'national objectives' among people who hold divergent views and perceptions on common issues of national concern. As expounded by Kaur (2013), for national integration to occur in a nation, a significant number of citizens must develop some level of identification with the nation that supersede their identification with ethnic, cultural or religious group, acquire political awareness, share common norms and values and develop attitudes favorable to the display of integrative behavior among people of different groups.

Mazrui (1972) identifies five interrelated approaches towards realizing aspects of national integration:

i. The fusion of norms and cultures (including the sharing of values, mode of expression, lifestyles and a common language);

ii. The promotion of economic interdependence;

iii. The narrowing of the gap between the elites and the masses, the urban and rural areas, rich and poor, etc (social integration);

iv. The resolution of emergent conflicts; and

v. The sharing of mutual experiences so that people can discover that they have undergone some important experiences together.

If effectively addressed as national concerns, these approaches to national integration should result into members of a nation developing a strong sense of national identification. As pointed out by Rashid (2013), national identification requires the willingness to perceive oneself as a member of a national community, or to feel a sense of belonging to a country. National identification can be expressed at three different levels; the verbal, the symbolic (as with the flag, national leaders, national icons, etc.) and the affective (or emotional attachment to the country and its leaders).

Characteristically, national integration is an unstable phenomenon; and, probably, that explains why it is elusive to the human societies. Rashid, Kaur (2013) agree that national integration is a highly complex phenomenon in the sense that what is integrative on the one hand may be disintegrative on another; and it is a dynamic construct in the sense that 'once integrated does not mean always integrated'. This makes national integration a complex phenomenon encompassing an array of interrelated cognitive, attitudinal and behavioral activities. It also contains socio-cultural, economic and political dimensions so much so that when agents of development are addressing socio-cultural, economic and political dimensions of development, they also reason erroneously that they are addressing the dimension of national integration. As a result, agents of development end up addressing development concerns without directly addressing issues of national integration. In Kenya, only recently have development agents begun giving isolated attention to 'national integration'; this is after the nation experienced the adverse effects of the 2007-2008 Post-Election Violence.

In an effort to draw a relationship between national integration and national development, Drake (1989) observes that in a social system where people in different geographical areas and of different ethnic, socio-cultural, religious and economic backgrounds do not generally feel themselves to be united or function as one nation, development cannot be fully achieved. She adds that the success of a country's economic development also depends to a considerable extent on the strength of its integrative and cohesive bonds. Rashid (2013) adds that where such bonds are weak or non-existent, development is often either sluggish, haphazard, totally non-existent or simply tantamount to the satisfaction of the will and aspiration of a small minority of individuals or groups who tend to seek for themselves a greater share of the economic and political fortunes that otherwise should be used to improve the social system as a whole. Some studies like Mohanty (2006); Rashid (2013) show that national integration and national development are symbiotically related; though the objectives of one should not be taken as the objective of the other. These studies support Tehranian (1994) who observed that the goal of national development is to achieve an increase in a social system's capacity to fulfill its own

perceived needs at progressively higher levels of material and cultural well-being while the goal of national integration is to provide cohesiveness to permit constructive and development-oriented societal change to take place. Rashid (2013) concludes that national integration is a substantive part of national development. A nation needs to be integrated into one for it to achieve development goals in all sectors of social life.

As already noted in this discussion, language as a medium of communication is central to the approaches and levels of national integration; a notion that is key for national development in any society. Therefore this paper considers language as a prime vehicle through which integration can be achieved and, hence, national development. Language is central to whichever strategy a nation adopts to propel the national integration agenda. As noted by Halliday (1985), language has a communicative function that is shaped by both culture and situation in which a linguistic unit has been used. The communicative function of language is achieved through modes such as print (written), speech, electronic and semiotic. Fromkin (2007) identifies specific functions of language; to convey meaning to others, to ask questions, to give commands and to express wishes. It is within this framework of appreciating language as having a functional dimension in society that this paper is interrogating an aspect of the functions of political speeches with regard to enhancing national integration in Kenya.

The Language of Politics: Political Speeches as a Political Discourse
Some scholars such as Ramney (1996); Roskin, Cord, Medeiros and Jones (1997); Manley (2008) agree that politics is the business of power, its acquisition and its use. That politics is the game of struggling and competing for government power. At the centre of political activities is language as the sole medium of communication. The language of politics is described as political discourse. Van Dijk (1997) describes political discourse as a prominent way of doing politics. That political discourse is identified by its actors or authors; who are politicians. Atkinson and Heritage (1984), Dijk (1985); Boden and Zimmerman (1991) concur that political discourse should be seen as a form of political action and as part of the political process if it is understood from the perspective that discourse is a form of social action and interaction. The simplified operational definition in this paper is that political discourse is the language of politicians for political communication.

Communication, as a process of sharing meaning between two or more parties, operates at different modes; the most basic being face-to-face communication (West and Turner, 2010). The other modes of communication include writing, electronic mediated and non-verbal. Of interest to this paper is face-to-face communication which primarily involves use of speech. In an earlier publication, Roskin, Cord, Medeiros and Jones (1997) observe that face-to-face communication is the most effective means for altering or reinforcing political opinions because it allows for dialogue unlike other modes of communication. During public political gatherings, the main mode of communication is face-to-face (speech). Given that the purpose of the speech at political gatherings is to propagate a political agenda, such speeches by political actors for political purposes are simply described as political speeches. Political speeches are therefore a part of political discourse.

At the centre of any communication process is the sharing of meaning. Meaning is what people extract from a message. West and Turner (2010) cite Martin and Nakayama (2008) as having observed that meaning in a communication process has a cultural consequence. This is because the process of communication takes place in an environment which includes a number

of elements: time, place, historical period, relationship and, speaker's and hearer's cultural background. All these aspects of environment influence a communicator's psychological construct when encoding and decoding a discourse. It is within this understanding that this paper demonstrates that political speeches when delivered in certain contexts undermine the spirit of national integration and thus, national development. This preceding discussion also gives justification as to the choice of Relevance Theory by Sperber and Wilson (1986 & 1995) and Wilson and Sperber (2004) in the interpretation of political speeches.

Relevance Theory

Relevance Theory by Dan Sperber and Deirdre Wilson (1986) is a cognitive-pragmatic communication model for interpreting and understanding utterances. It is an inferential approach to pragmatics that seeks to explain how the hearer infers the speaker's meaning on the basis of the evidence provided. The theory has been expounded in Sperber and Wilson (1995) and in Wilson and Sperber (2004).

The theory proposes that understanding and comprehension are directed and channelled by the innate principle of relevance. Sperber and Wilson (1986/1995) and Wilson and Sperber (2004) argue that humans tend to pay attention to what is relevant to them and that humans form the most relevant possible representations of phenomena and process them in a context that maximises their relevance. The principle of relevance works like a filter in the mind of the communicators so that only the information that is selected by that principle leads to understanding of the meaning of the utterance. Relevance Theory operates on three tenets:

a) The notion of context
b) The principle of relevance for communication
c) The comprehension procedure of Relevance Theory

Discussed below are the first two tenets which are relevant in the interpretation of political speeches in this paper:

a) The notion of context

The search for relevance in an utterance is a psychological process guided by the mental context of the communicators. Sperber and Wilson (1995:15) define context as:

"Context is a psychological construct, a subset of the hearer's assumptions about the world."

Schroder (2008) simplifies this as referring to some kind of encyclopaedia about the world which contains the values and norms of a society, personal belief system and cultural norms. It constitutes all the knowledge that the communicators will have stored in their mind at the time they enter a conversation. Context plays a key role in the interpretation of utterances. There are two kinds of contexts relevant for the interpretation of speech event: the linguistic context and the situational or physical context. Blass (1990) describes a linguistic context as including linguistic information that precedes the speech event while the situational context includes virtually everything non-linguistic in the environment of the speaker.

b) The principle of relevance for communication

Wilson and Sperber (2004:612) provide the following principle of relevance as being the basis for Relevance Theory as a theory of inferential communication:

"Every act of ostensive communication communicates the presumption of its own optimal relevance."

This means that by saying something in the normal course of human interaction, one is telling the hearer not only that he/she thinks that what is being said is worth the time and effort the hearer will take to process it, but also that no more easily processed utterance would give the same result (utterance meaning). Thus, the principle of relevance for communication operates on the basis of cost and benefit in the mind of the communicators and it is guided by two aspects: the cognitive principle of relevance and the communicative principle of relevance.

The cognitive principle of relevance enables the hearer to single out one possible interpretation as interpretation of communicated utterances, thoughts, gestures and perceptions when information is channelled through it. Wilson and Sperber (2004:610) states that the cognitive principle of relevance is:

"Human cognition tends to be geared to maximization of relevance."

This principle has two components: an informative component and an intentional component. The informative component is also referred to as 'inferential communication' in relevance-theoretical terms. It communicates the content of the message arrived at through processes such as implicatures, explicatures, disambiguation and enrichment. The intentional component communicates the intention of the speaker. It consists of verbal and non-verbal cues that a speaker builds around his/her message so that the hearer understands the message as intended by the speaker. The two components work simultaneously in the mind of the hearer and they are processed or monitored against a presumed shared context between the speaker and the hearer. The shared context will constitute the socio-cultural norms and the knowledge of the world. When the hearer fails to establish a shared context with the speaker, then the information is interpreted against the hearer's context. In this process, the mind searches for all the mental representations for understanding of the message. This mental search is aimed at establishing the appropriate cognitive effects relevant to the information received from the speaker. The mind searches all the mental representations for understanding which leads to yielding *cognitive effects* in the mind of the hearer.

Cognitive effects are as a result of the hearer's mind trying to integrate the content of the information represented by the utterance into his/her existing mental representations. If the message meets some shared context, i.e. some older knowledge, then the understanding is high this would then mean that the message was relevant to the hearer and it is therefore send or integrated into the mental lexicon. However, if there is no shared background knowledge between the speaker and the hearer, then little or no understanding takes place. The new information is then either rejected and thus not stored in the mind of the hearer or it is misinterpreted and stored in the mind of the hearer if deemed relevant. Therefore cognitive effects can be either positive or negative. A positive cognitive effect is a worthwhile difference to the individual's representation of the world such as a true conclusion from the speaker's information which gets integrated in the hearer's mental lexicon. False conclusions are not worth having. They are cognitive effects but not positive ones (Sperber and Wilson, 1995). Positive cognitive effects may lead to:

 i. Building contextual implications; a conclusion deducible from the input and the context together, but from neither input nor context alone.

 ii. Strengthening an existing assumption

 iii. Contradicting and eliminating an existing assumption

<div align="right">(Wilson and Sperber, 2004)</div>

The processing of the speaker's information in the mind of the hearer operates on cost-benefit basis. The mind tries to be as economical as possible while searching for optimal relevance. Optimal relevance is understood in terms of contextual effects and processing effort. The greater the effort the mind takes searching for contextual effects, the fewer the cognitive effects that are found, and therefore less relevant is the message. But if the processing requires less effort because the mind easily finds many shared assumptions between the interlocutors, the message will contain a greater number of cognitive effects and thus the message has much relevance to the hearer.

The communicative principle of relevance is the second aspect of the principle of relevance for communication. The communicative principle of relevance states that:

"Every act of ostensive communication communicates a presumption of its own optimal relevance." (Wilson and Sperber, 2004:612)

This principle means that when communicators talk to each other, the relevant theoretical processes of understanding (as described under cognitive principle of relevance) is initiated. Every successful communication relies on the shared background assumptions between the interlocutors.

The process of understanding or comprehension of utterances begins with the hearer's mind interpreting the information by constructing an appropriate hypothesis about explicit content via decoding, disambiguation, reference resolution and other pragmatic enrichment processes. The interpretation arrived at is then enhanced by the mind establishing implicatures by constructing an appropriate hypothesis about the intended contextual implication. (Wilson and Sperber, 2004) The next section now provides a relevant theoretical interpretation of political speeches in Kenya with regard to the spirit for national integration.

Relevance Theoretical Interpretation of Political Speeches in Kenya: Implications on National Integration

Kihara and Schroder (2012) observe that Relevance Theory has been applied to many research areas such as humour, media discourse, literature, politeness, translation, language teaching among others. They cite Yus (2010, p. 701) as having noted that, "... these research areas which take Relevance Theory as their theoretical framework are evidence of the dynamism and impact of this cognitive pragmatics theory of communication." In this paper, this theory has been applied in the analysis of political speeches in Kenya as a factor in national integration and national development. Excerpts from campaign rallies during the Bungoma Senatorial by-election, 2013 have been used for analysis in this paper.

Important to note is that political speeches are topical texts with multiple functions in communication contexts. Charteris-Black (2005) notes that successful speakers, especially in political contexts, need to appeal to attitudes and emotions that are within the listeners. Speakers find it easy to communicate what they want to their audiences once they succeed in making the audience/listener to believe that what is being addressed is what they (listeners) understand and support. As such, the speaker has to communicate at an emotional level and take standpoints that seem morally correct to the listener. In Relevance Theoretical terms, Charteris-Black's sentiments are captured within the notion of context; that the human mind searches for relevance in an utterance guided by mental context. As already discussed above, mental context constitutes the hearer's assumptions about the world - both the linguistic context and the

physical/situational context. Communication is enhanced if both the speaker and hearer share the same mental context surrounding the speech or utterance. It could be by default or design that most political speakers in Kenya strive to establish some rapport with their audiences/hearers by trying to establish a shared context when making political speeches. This is achieved through allegorical anecdotes, analogies, recounting past events, metaphors and song as introduction to their intended message. Most of these are presented from the perspective of the listener; depicting the listener as disadvantaged, exploited, oppressed, and marginalized with strong undertones of a given political ideology; a speaker says:

"...today is no day like any other. We stand here to give testimony to the will of [the] people of Bungoma; to give testimony to the unstoppable movement of the people of Bungoma. To sent out a clear warning to our detractors that we shall neither be cowed nor stopped. To tell the people of Kenya that the people of Bungoma are a part of the big happy family of Kenya..."

These utterances imply that the people of Bungoma have been denied their rights; they have been segregated against from the rest of Kenya; and that they are in a movement to demand for their rightful position in Kenya; and that somebody, somewhere, is detracting them or stopping them from fighting for their freedom. These propositions come after a rallying call:

Speaker:	*CORD*
Audience:	*Tuko tayari* (We are ready)
Speaker:	*Mukotayari?* (Are you ready?)
Audience:	*Ee!* (Affirmative, yes)
Speaker:	*Mundu khu mundu?* ([to deal with] Person to person [bare knuckled])
Audience:	*Ee!* (Affirmative, yes) [Amid intense applause and screams]

Utterances like the ones presented above automatically stimulated the emotions of the listeners into a war-like mood while chanting, cheering, shouting, whistling and jeering and name-calling to reveal their feelings towards either the speaker or perceived opponents/enemy. Such utterances yield a strong environment of a fierce political contest to the extent that political opponents are perceived as total enemies rather than mutual competitors with a common national agenda. At a Coalition for Reforms and Democracy (CORD) rally, speaking in Kiswahili language, a speaker says:

"...tulinoa wembe, tukanoa shoka, tukanyoa watu wa Jubillee..."

(...we sharpened razor-blade, we sharpened axe, and we shaved Jubillee supporters...)

This was delivered amid cheers from a crowd which was already seeing itself at war with the members of the rival ruling coalition, JUBILLEE with its affiliates like AMANI coalition. The utterance implies that JUBILLEE and their affiliate is CORD's enemy. This is revealed in the utterance that followed:

"...musikubali hata kidogo kura zenu ziibwe na mtu..."

(...do not accept at all your vote to be stolen by somebody...)

The implied 'thieves' in this context are the supporters of ruling coalition, and the speaker is addressing his listeners as though the nation is in a state of anarchy without enforcers of law. The statement is, in a way, asking the listeners to be on the lookout to catch and discipline those who break the law by stealing their votes. This is because the perception already created is that Jubillee and its partners in the ruling coalition has thieves, thus cannot be entrusted to handle a constitutional process like a by-election. Important to note is that while such messages were

being delivered at the CORD rally, at the AMANI rally which was taking place at the same time about three kilometres away, similar sentiments were being shared:

("...huko Kisumu kwa court of appeal...wakachunguza...wakapata Wetangula aliiba kura zenu...ndugu zetu CORD wasilete siasa propaganda hapa...") [with an emphatic raising intonation]

(...there in Kisumu at court of appeal...they investigated...they found out Wetangula stole your votes...our brothers in CORD shouldn't bring politics of propaganda here...)

These utterances are delivered after a recount of events preceding this rally in which the speaker depicted CORD as spreading tribal sentiments. He says:

"...akasema [Wetangula] serikali imetumia huyo jamaa [High Court Judge Gikonyo] kwa sababu ni mkikuyu abanduwe Wetangula kwa sababu ni mtu wa CORD..."

(...he [Wetangula] said the government has used that guy [High Court Judge Gikonyo] because he [Gikonyo] is a kikuyu who will [pass judgement] to remove Wetangula [from senatorial seat] because he [Wetangula] is a CORD person...)

Therefore, within this context, the two separate audiences which both constitute participants from the same nation are being fed on information which sets them against each other and therefore does not promote ideals for national integration. With tribal connotations and instilling of the feelings of mistrust, whoever that wins such election will be representing a community in which a section of its people perceive him as a 'thief' by the rival camp. This goes against Mazrui's (1972) suggested approaches towards realising national integration; that there should be focus on resolving emergent conflicts, and enabling people share mutual experiences so that they can discover that they have undergone some important experiences together. In essence, the speeches at these rallies were deepening an already established conflict preceding the by-election exercise rather than correcting a past mistake and making participants feel they are one people.

There is a deliberate attempt by politicians to create a class society in their speeches. The class society so created by the political speeches subverts the social order to create one in which they (politicians) belong to one social class with their listeners. Though this may be interpreted as a further attempt to create a shared context between the speakers and listeners, it is also a sympathetic move to seek belonging; that they as political leaders are in the same social class with the poor whom they lead. That the poor are suffering, and they too are suffering. A speaker says:

"...democrasia...haitahujumiwa na wale ambao wanafikiria walizaliwa kuongoza wengine. ...wanaofikiria watakaa kwingine na ku-control nchi yetu na remote control. ...wanaofikiria kuwa na pesa ndio kuwa mtu mzuri. ...na wale wanaofikiria watatutawala miaka kumi na mwingine miaka kumi..."

(...democracy...will not be frustrated by those who think they were born to lead others. ...those who think will sit elsewhere and control our nation by remote control. ...those who think that to have money is to be a good person. ...and those who think they will rule over us for ten years and another one ten years...)

From this excerpt, the speaker tries to identify himself with his audience. Given that majority of the listeners at political rallies are the ordinary people who are poor, the speaker tries to subvert the social order by creating an impression that he belongs to this group of people. This is an aspect of manipulation of language to misrepresent the reality. However, language use in

this is creating an ideological concept that the 'haves' are dominating the 'have not' and there is a determination by the 'haves' who are in power to dominate the 'have not' for a period of twenty years. Indeed this seemed to succeed because at the end of these utterances, the crowd was getting irritated. It seemed to be a psychological game to twist the emotions of the listeners into bitter dislike of the ruling coalition and its leaders. This contravenes Mazrui's ideology that for national integration to be realised there needs to be a deliberate attempt to narrow the gap between the elites and the masses, the urban and rural areas, and rich and poor towards social integration. From the perspective of Relevance Theory, this manipulation of language to misrepresent the truth is an attempt to fulfill the principle of relevance: that human mind is geared towards understanding what is relevant to the hearer. This analysis agrees with Beard's (2000) argument that a political speech is not necessarily successful (to its audience) because it is correct or true, but because it has been presented with valid arguments.

Speakers at political rallies are driven by a passion to achieve specific political goals. And more often their agenda is at the expense of issues of national concern such as national integration. Driven by a political goal, political speakers package and repackage their political outfit as the alternative leadership that will solve the problems of their listeners/electorate having already created a context that appeals to the listeners' emotions. In such circumstance, the speeches depict the rival political outfit as incompetent. A speaker says:

"…wale wanaJUBILLEE wameshindwa na utawala. …si mnaona bei ya bidhaa inapanda kila siku! Sasa wanasema wanataka kuleta sheria ya polisi kupiga raia na bunduki, mtakubaliana na hiyo?"

Response: *Hakuna baba (emphatically)*

"…those members of JUBILLEE are defeated with administration. …you can see prices of goods are increasing every day! Now they are saying they will bring a law for the police to shoot people with guns, will you accept that?"

Response: No way father. (Emphatically)

These utterances imply that the speaker's political coalition (CORD) is the alternative political outfit to offer good governance to Kenyans. The inferred contextual conclusions from these utterances are that JUBILLEE is an oppressive regime; it does not mind the survival of the masses; and that people should fight back at draconian policies. Such is a divisive talk setting people against their own regime and it weakens the bond of national integration. As observed by Kaur (2013) and Rashid (2013), once the bonds of national integration are weakened, people lose the sense of belonging to the nation. The above utterances are delivered after the speaker has used allegorical statements implying that the ruling coalition is in power illegally:

"…katika bibilia Mungu alionya Herode, akamuambia: Herode, si halali kuchukua bibi ya mwenzako. Lakini Herode akachukua bibi ya mwenzake. Huyo mtoto walizaa, Mungu alilaani, sio?"

Response: *Eee* (Affirmative)

(…in the bible, God warned Herod, [and] told him: it is not acceptable to take a wife of your colleague. But Herod took the colleague's wife. That child they gave birth to was cursed, isn't that so?)

Response: Yes.

In Relevance Theoretical interpretation, the speaker's intended meaning is arrived at through enrichment of the literal meaning with interpretive meaning of the imagery in the

utterance within the shared socio-cultural context of the speaker and the hearers. The success in sharing intended meaning is confirmed by the speaker through the question and answer strategy. In that context then, it is finally understood that the ruling coalition is illegally in power yet putting in place oppressive policies. This weakens the spirit that bonds people and their leadership to achieve unity, hence national integration. Such utterances instill a sense of insecurity among the people; that the government in place is an illegal one with malicious intentions and this weakens the spirit of integrating into one.

Conclusion

The purpose of this paper was to show that political speeches in Kenya are a factor in weakening the spirit of national integration, and hence, national development. It has been established in this paper that politicians in Kenya employ certain aspects of language use in their political speeches with an intention of achieving political agenda. This paper has established that politicians make a deliberate attempt to influence the emotions of their listeners by establishing a shared background. The shared background that politicians establish depicts politicians as existing in a pseudo-world in which they share a social class with the listeners. Within the pseudo-world created, politicians find it easy to manipulate the emotions of the listener while addressing sensitive issues which are relayed from the perspective of the hearer. Such a shared background effectively acts as the context upon which messages are delivered to the target audience. The political messages can be understood through an inferential approach within Relevance Theory in interpretive processes such as implicatures, reference assignment and enrichment. All such processes reveal that politicians use manipulation of language to either represent or misrepresent reality in an attempt to stir up the emotions of the hearer into acts which destroy fabrics for national integration and, hence, national development.

The paper has established that messages in political speeches by politicians in Kenya are tailored towards fulfilling the political agenda of the speaker; acquisition and/or expansion of political power. Politicians do this at the expense of building the spirit of national integration. Most of the political speeches carry messages that weaken the bonds needed for national integration. In their messages, politicians make the hearer feel exploited and marginalized by those in political leadership. The messages portray a rival political outfit as a composition of thieves, murderers and untrustworthy leaders. Such messages do not strengthen the bonds of national integration. As explained by Mazrui (1972); Rashid (2013), national integrations can thrive in circumstances where there is deliberate narrowing of the existence of social classes, resolving existing conflicts and enabling people understand that they have a common history and they should have mutual existence. Apparently, this is not what political speeches in Kenya do; instead they enhance the existing conflicts and inculcate hate towards a section of Kenyans.

As observed by Mohanty (2006); Rashid (2013) national integration is a part of national development. The ability of a nation to integrate into one accelerates its advances in development. In this regard, therefore, political speeches in Kenya, by the very fact that they do not enhance national integration, so do they impede advances in national development. This conclusion finds support in Drake's (1989) observation that neglect of any one component of national integration leads to disintegrative forces setting in to destabilize the continued existence of a nation resulting into issues of national development becoming moot. It is therefore imperative that politicians in Kenya, as opinion-shapers in key spheres of the nation, must use

political speeches not only to advance personal political agenda, but most importantly, to advance the national agenda on integration and development.

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The Impact of Video-Viewing in a Listening Class

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The Impact of Video-Viewing in a Listening Class

Berrington Xolani Siphosakhe Ntombela & Nayeemunnisa Yusuff

Department of English, Faculty of Arts, University of Zululand, Private Bag X1001, KwaDlangezwa, 886, Republic of South Africa, Language and Learning, School of Foundation Studies, Caledonian College of Engineering, PO Box 2322, CPO Seeb 111, Sultanate of Oman
Email: ntombelab@unizulu.ac.za, Nayeemunnisa@caledonian.edu.com

Abstract
Listening is the least popular skill among the four that underpin the teaching and learning of a second or a foreign language. The teaching of Listening as a subject started later than other skills. Listening has for a long time been taught using audiotapes because the emphasis has been on training auditory skills to help learners hear clearly and be able to mimic native- speaker pronunciation. With the advancement of technology where videos got into classrooms, moving pictures were introduced in Listening classes. This paper is therefore concerned with the replacement of audio listening by video viewing in a Listening class. The research is carried out through a questionnaire that is circulated to learners and teachers with an aim of establishing the impact of video viewing in a Listening class. The findings indicate that although learners and teachers appreciate the usefulness of video viewing, it does not successfully help learners achieve the main learning outcome of note-taking. The paper attributes this to the difficulty of dealing with audio that requires learners to listen, and moving pictures that need students to view. The paper therefore recommends that tasks be set appropriately with the envisaged skill, i.e. listening or viewing.
Keywords: Audio Listening, Video Viewing, Second Language Acquisition, Survey.

Introduction
Anxiety Listening is among the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) that are the focus in teaching and learning a new language. This skill depends on one's ability to hear. That is, children who have a hearing impairment lose their ability to speak because they have no access to the language input. This means that even when learning a new language, linguistic input is important in determining the success of acquiring the new language. However, hearing and listening should not be thought to be synonymous as the former refers to a biological ability whilst the latter is a cognitive process. In other words, one can hear an entire conversation but may not be able to listen especially if the language used is new or unfamiliar. According to Elekaei et al. (2016), listening is said to be 'receptive when it is what the speaker actually says, constructive when it creates and signifies meaning, collaborative when it negotiates meaning

with the speaker and listener and transformative when it creates meaning through participation and imagination' (p. 41). Listening therefore presupposes understanding which is pivotal in reacting to the content of the message. It can be asserted therefore that success in learning a new language also rests on a person's ability to process the language that is heard.

Among the four skills mentioned above, listening is said to be the most challenging to master and perhaps to teach as well. In fact, the teaching of new languages did not initially focus on listening than it did on writing and reading; even speaking was not encouraged until accuracy was achieved. Listening finally made its way to the classroom as a formal subject that could be taught. Over the years a listening lesson has been conducted through audio tapes, then compact discs (CDs); and today with the explosion of information technology and the world-wide-web, there are many sophisticated instruments. That is, listening can be taught through the internet or through downloaded material into ones MP3 player or iPod and any other such device. In fact, Kabata and Yang (2002) assert that 'the recent development of multimedia technology marks a significant change from the traditional listening teaching based on audiotapes' (p. 568). Whatever the device though, listening skill is developed by interacting with the content one is listening to. This content would be predominantly provided in audio format, however, in some cases video which presents content in moving pictures has been used as part of a listening lesson. Video listening dominates listening lessons in the institution where this research was conducted, which prompted the researchers to investigate whether such a practice benefits the listening process or not. Since the research is mainly concerned with the source of listening, it is necessary to survey literature about sources of listening and their implications.

Sources of Listening
Perhaps the earliest instrument used in the classroom for teaching listening was a tape-recorder. Hill (1974) used the tape-recorder in and outside the English classroom 'to train students to hear phonemic distinctions… and to drill words, sentences etc. … so that they can later serve as models for other utterances' (p. 134). The tape-recorder is still very much in use although it is being replaced by CDs (Scrivener, 2005; Harmer, 2006), but the aim remains similar: Hamad (2008) for instance proposes a framework for designing a listening course meant to help students 'master note-taking, general patterns of stress, intonation, rhythm, patterns and lexical knowledge of English … the English sounds that do not exist in Arabic, etc.' (p. 176).

Wilson (2010) further provides various listening sources in addition to the tape-recorder. According to Wilson (*ibid*, 41-43), teacher talk in the form of planned input such as announcements, e.g. the date, time and venue where a particular test would be written serves as a good source of listening. Teacher talk may also be in the form of semi-planned input where a teacher may show and talk about photos; talk about his or her firsts in life; childhood anecdotes; a chat show where a teacher may conduct a panel interview of students in front of the audience (the whole class); and a teacher discussing own biography (Wilson, *loc. cit.*). In addition, teacher talk may take the form of spontaneous input where, for instance, the teacher gives words of encouragement; gossip; on-the-spot classroom management such as a scenario where the teacher might confront a late student by asking 'What happened to you this morning?' etc. (Wilson, *op. cit.*).

Furthermore, Wilson (*ibid*, 45) argues that just as there are different aspects of teacher talk that are a good source of listening, the same applies to student talk. However, for student

talk to be effective it is incumbent upon the teacher to ascertain that appropriate tasks are set that will maximize its effectiveness. Wilson (*op. cit*.) suggests such tasks as jigsaws with information gaps, reporting back, making presentations, and assigning the role of secretary to one student.

Another source of listening which like teacher talk and student talk exemplifies live listening is guest speaker (Wilson, ibid, 46). In this case the teacher could invite a proficient or native speaker of English into the class. Scrivener (2005), however, argues that the guest could be the teacher him/herself assuming the character of another, say well-known figure. Activities and tasks would then have to be set in order to make sure that students get the most out of the guest speaker. Among other activities, students could be allowed to ask the guest speaker to speak about any topic of their interest, perhaps in the area of the guest's expertise. The interaction, as suggested by Wilson (*loc. cit.*), could be recorded so that comprehension is enforced through follow-up activities. Harmer (2006), however, asserts that live listening should be viewed as adding another dimension into a number of listening lessons and not a replacement for audiotapes or CDs.

Additionally, textbook recordings as another source of listening provide a variety of materials such as news bulletins, interviews, stories, jokes, songs etc. Although there has been criticism on lack of authenticity in textbook recordings (Wilson, *ibid*, 47), the variety they provide and the fact that lately many textbooks have digital versions that are being made compatible with Interactive White Boards (IWB) technology has immense benefits for teachers and students in a listening lesson.

Television, radio, video and DVD as sources of listening have the benefit of cheap access - especially in the case of radio - and visual aspect in the others which is essential among students with short-span attention and memory (Wilson, ibid, 48). The drawback that is usually cited with regards to these sources is the level which is normally higher than that of students. It is therefore necessary that the teacher plans lessons in such a way that the level of tasks is brought to that of students.

The other source of listening that Wilson (ibid, 49-50) believes helps students with *inter alia* pronunciation practice is songs. Harmer (*ibid*) also believes that the benefit of music is its ability to speak to the emotion whilst at the same time allowing our brains to analyze it. One other benefit is that students can bring their favorite songs which nonetheless still leave the teacher with the responsibility of ascertaining that the songs are appropriate for the class, and also making sure that tasks enforce comprehension so that the lesson is not reduced to only an entertainment session.

Internet is arguably set to replace many of the sources of listening as we move towards the middle 21st century as it is the fastest growing means of accessing listening materials especially in this age of computer literate students (Scrivener, *ibid*.). Lys, for example, chronicles an interesting journey of how the internet applications such as Flash came to replace the audiovisual computer program which was only accessible in the university computer laboratory dedicated for culture and language learning. Among other possibilities, the Internet gives access to websites that are solely designed to teach new languages where listening lessons are embedded. Nonetheless, the benefits of face-to-face communication still prove more viable than virtual scenes modeled by computers (Wilson, ibid, 52).

Having discussed different sources of listening, it is fitting that we closely consider those

sources that incorporate moving images such as television, video, and DVD versus those that are exclusively audio, e.g. audiotapes and CDs. It should be noted that both these types of sources are accessible through the Internet.

Video Listening Versus Audio Listening

We have mentioned that a listening lesson is traditionally carried out using any instrument that projects audio sounds such as audiotapes and CDs, but we have also added that in some cases video which introduces an element of moving pictures is used instead. There is however a question of whether using videos exclusively for a listening lesson still constitute a listening lesson or not.

Wilson (*ibid*) does not seem to have a problem in classifying videos as part of a listening lesson. As we have noted above, he (ibid, 49) actually elevates video above audio citing such advantages as visual element and something to occupy students even when there are pauses in dialogues. He further argues that in a listening sequence, visuals are helpful in activating schemata especially during pre-listening stage which also benefits visual learners (ibid, 69). Such advantages of video are echoed in Garza (1990) who argue that the incorporation of video in a foreign language curriculum is encouraged because of its ability to allow 'for both audio and visual modalities of information input'… which are 'more accessible to the learner' (p. 289).

Although Scrivener (*ibid*) challenges the effectiveness of using recordings for listening lessons given the fact that in real life listening does not seem to follow the same lines of passivity as suggested by recordings where the listener does not interact with the speakers and has no contribution to the direction of the conversation, he notably confines himself to audio materials when suggesting ideas for listening activities. His suggested ideas are 'jigsaw listening, jigsaw task ideas, the tape gallery, home recording, live listening, and guest stars'; none of which involves video (ibid, 182-184). Nevertheless, Scrivener (*ibid*, 352) asserts that video can be used in class with tasks set for listening, looking or interpreting; i.e. the question is not on the instrument but on the task to be accomplished. In other words, tasks would focus students on what they need in the video to accomplish it. Notwithstanding, Scrivener (*op. cit*.) appears cautious in labeling video as listening but seems to prefer the term 'viewing' which denotes that primarily video is meant for viewing than listening. Interestingly, Hsu et al. (2013) report that among elementary students, there was no improvement in listening comprehension in a research about the effects of video caption modes on English listening comprehension. They are however aware that their findings are contrary to researchers such as Secules et al. (1992) who conducted their studies among tertiary students and found that classes that used videos outperformed those that did not in listening comprehension.

Similarly, Harmer (*ibid*) agrees that most teachers rely on taped recordings for language input, notwithstanding disadvantages of *inter alia* inauthenticity. In his treatment of intensive and extensive listening, he exclusively refers to audiotapes with a notable absence of videos (*ibid*, 228ff). Like Scrivener, Harmer (*ibid*) regards video to have a range of uses in a classroom including listening which can be pictureless where the focus is on language; pictureless but focusing on music where, for instance, students would have to discuss the mood created by a popular track; pictureless focusing on sound effects where students might have to guess scenes suggested by such sounds as shuffling of feet, clapping, ululating etc.; picture or speech where some students would view the pictures and try to describe what is happening to those who are not viewing. He

(*ibid*, 287) emphasizes that these listening techniques operate on the same principles as those for viewing. In fact, one can argue that apart from the technique where some students watch the picture and describe what is happening to those who are not watching, the rest can be accomplished using audiotapes or CDs.

Therefore, it appears that the main advantage of videos over audios is that of having an element of visuals. However, the tasks would determine the success of the video lesson especially when it is used for listening. That is, visuals should be used exclusively for facilitating listening, not for the sake of it. For example, Ergin and Donancis (2016) in their study about instructional videos as part of a flipped classroom approach caution that such approaches should be dictated by the needs of the students and the learning context. In other words, visuals are likely to be a hindrance where tasks demand that students listen but find that they have to view at the same time.

Research

The aim of this research was to find out whether the exclusive use of videos for listening lessons benefit students in the institution where the research was conducted or not. Secondly, the research meant to find out whether the listening lessons in the institution developed students' note-taking skill.

Participants

In order to achieve these aims, research was conducted among one hundred (100) Foundation 2 students from a total of two hundred and fifty (250). Specifically, the participants were Omani students studying at a University College at Foundation level. Other participants in the research were eight (8) teachers who taught in the above Foundation program. The teachers were of different nationalities (Omani, Indian, British, Sudanese, Filipino, South African, and American).

Instrument

The research was carried out quantitatively through administering two questionnaires: one for students and the other for teachers. The questions in the questionnaires were basically meant to find out the impact of videos in a listening lesson with regards to whether they help learners with note-taking skills and whether learners and teachers perceived videos to be better than audio listening or not.

Whilst on the one hand teachers were to record their responses on a three-point scale: Agree, Disagree, No answer; on the other hand, students were simple expected to either Agree or Disagree. Before presenting data collected through the instrument discussed above, it is fitting to discuss the questions in each questionnaire.

Teachers' Questionnaire

The teachers' questionnaire had a total of eight questions. The first question was meant to elicit whether teachers agreed, disagreed, or had no answer in response to the statement: Students have found video Listening classes interesting. It was important to establish whether teachers perceived video listening to be generating any interest in classes. In the second question teachers were to respond to the statement: Students are actively involved in taking notes. It has been mentioned that one important outcome in the Listening course was note-taking which was

important to establish whether it was being achieved or not. The third question elicited teachers' perception on whether the tasks given were appropriate for the level. This was important to know as the inappropriateness of the level may make any listening a failure, be it video or audio. The fourth question solicited teachers' perception on whether the time given was sufficient for students to complete tasks. Similarly, insufficient time is likely to make either video or audio-listening a failure.

In question five, teachers were asked to either agree, or disagree, or give no answer to the statement: The quality of the videos is good. Teachers' perception in this question was important in further establishing whether the negative impact that video listening might have is due to poor quality or not. Question six expected teachers to respond on whether video helps the students to understand better. It has been pointed out that when video is used for listening, care should be taken that it plays a facilitative role in aiding understanding. The seventh question which meant to establish whether what video was offering could not be better achieved by, say audio, elicited teachers' response to the statement: Students learn better by watching video. The last question simply solicited teachers' perception on whether video listening is better than audio listening. The next section discusses students' questionnaire. The next section discusses students' questionnaire.

Students' Questionnaire
Unlike teachers' questionnaire, the students' one had a total of eleven questions. In the first question students were asked whether they are agree or disagree that they like listening classes. This was to rule out the general dislike of listening classes against video listening *per se*. In the second question they were asked whether video listening is interesting for them. Students might like listening classes but find video listening uninteresting. Question three was meant to verify whether students understand better by watching videos. This would be helpful in ascertaining the positive impact of video listening. Question four was meant to find out whether students considered tasks to be appropriate to their level. This was important to establish as it is among the determinants of success for both video and audio listening.

Like the question posed to the teachers, question five required students to respond on whether the time given to complete tasks was sufficient. Again, insufficient time to complete tasks may have no direct bearing in the impact of video listening as such but on listening in general. The sixth question required students to agree or disagree whether videos help them learn better. This, again, was meant to confirm the impact of video listening in their learning. Since the surveyed students were preparing for engineering studies and listening videos being predominantly on engineering topics, the seventh question expected students to respond on whether they perceived video listening to be a good opportunity to know about the engineering field. Question eight was the same with the one posed to teachers on whether they perceived the quality of the videos to be good.

Similarly, question nine solicited students' response on whether they perceived video listening to be better than audio listening. Question ten was meant to find out whether students had learnt how to take notes. This was important to establish as video listening was adopted to facilitate the attainment of this skill. The final question, similar to the previous one, required students to agree or disagree that they could write a summary using the notes taken during listening. This was further meant to confirm that students had acquired the note-taking skills.

Procedure

These questionnaires were administered to participants towards the end of the term: the eleventh week. Student questionnaires were administered by the teacher responsible for the class. Each teacher explained to the students that the research was meant to get feedback so that improvements where applicable could be effected on the Listening Component. However, the questionnaire for teachers was administered by the researchers. Questionnaires were then collected and results were analyzed in Table 1 (for teachers) and Table 2 (for students). That is, the responses were then subjected to a statistical analysis of frequencies and percentages where an item with the highest frequency and percentage represented the most significant.

Analysis and Interpretation

Table 1 below presents the consolidated results of the teachers' perceptions about video listening. Each question is analyzed according to frequencies (F) and percentages (%).

Table 1. Teachers' Perceptions about Video Listening

Question No.	Agree		Disagree		No Answer	
	F	*%*	F	*%*	F	*%*
1	4	*50*	3	*37.5*	1	*12.5*
2	2	*25*	5	*62.5*	1	*12.5*
3	4	*50*	3	*37.5*	1	*12.5*
4	4	*50*	4	*50*	0	*0*
5	6	*75*	2	*25*	0	*0*
6	6	*75*	2	*25*	0	*0*
7	5	*62.5*	0	*0*	3	*37.5*
8	2	*25*	6	*75*	0	*0*

Question 1: Students have found video listening classes interesting. Responses for the first question indicate that half the number of teachers agreed that students found video listening classes interesting. Only 37.5% disagreed and 12.5% had no answer. This means that half the number of teachers was not convinced that video listening classes were interesting because those who had no answer could not be counted among those who were convinced.

Question 2: Students are actively involved in taking notes. On the question of whether students were actively involved in taking notes, most teachers (62.5%) disagreed, which is in contrast with only 25% who agreed – only 12.5% had no answer. This is problematic in achieving the important outcome of note-taking and raises questions on the effectiveness of video-listening in fostering the skill of note-taking.

Question 3: Listening tasks are appropriate for the level. Similarly, like question one, half the number of teachers in question three agreed that the tasks given were appropriate for the level. The remaining 37.5% and 12.5% respectively disagreed and had no answer. This again suggests that half the number of teachers were not convinced that tasks were appropriate for the level. If the level was indeed above, it might partly explain why most students were perceived not to be actively involved in taking notes.

Question 4: the time was sufficient for students to complete tasks. In question four, interestingly, there was no teacher who had no answer; instead 50% agreed that the time given was sufficient for students to complete tasks whilst the other 50% disagreed. This might mean that in half the times, the time given was sufficient whilst in the other half, time was insufficient. This would also mean that half the number of students was not able to complete tasks due to insufficient time.

Question 5: The quality of videos is good. In question five, the overwhelming majority of 75% teachers agreed that the quality of videos was good. Only 25% did not agree. This means that any problem relating to video listening may have hardly risen from the quality of videos.

Question 6: Videos help students understand better. Similarly, in question six, 75% teachers agreed that videos help students understand better. This means that the majority were positive about the good impact of video listening in aiding understanding; only 25% did not think so.

Question 7: Students learn better by watching videos. Whilst 62.5% teachers agreed that students learn better by watching videos in question seven, none of the teachers disagreed; on the contrary 37.5% did not have any answer. This response is nonetheless in agreement with the one in the previous question in the positiveness of the respondents.

Question 7: Video listening is better than audio listening. On the contrary, responses for question eight indicate that the vast majority (75%) of teachers disagreed that video-listening was better than audio listening. Only 25% was positive. This perception is in sharp contrast with the ones in the previous two questions. This therefore means that even though teachers are positive about the good impact of videos in aiding both learning and understanding; it is still outclassed by audio listening.

Table 2. Students' Perceptions about Video Listening

Question No.	Agree	Disagree
1	48	52
2	42	58
3	48	52
4	55	45
5	35	65
6	59	41
7	54	46
8	54	46
9	46	54
10	44	56
11	46	54

Question 1: I like listening classes. Although students' response for question one on whether they like listening classes or not is more or less leveled; at 52% those who disagreed are slightly more than those who agreed. This means that students largely did not consider listening classes interesting even though it is with such a narrow margin.

Question 2: Video listening is interesting for me. On the second question of whether video

listening is interesting for students or not, the margin opened a little wider of those who at 58% disagreed. This means that more students did not perceive video listening to be interesting.

Question 3: I understand better by watching videos. The response for question 3 on whether students understand better by watching videos was the same with question one in that 52% disagreed. This means that although a sizable number (48%) was positive, more students did not consider videos to be enhancing understanding.

Question 4: Listening tasks are appropriate for my level. Response for question 4 on whether the tasks given were appropriate to the level saw a shift of opinion where there were more (55%) students who were positive than those who were negative. Again, 45% is still a sizable number, but it is less than those who are positive. This means many students did not have problems with the level appropriateness of the tasks.

Question 5: The time was sufficient for me to complete tasks. However, in question five the majority (65%) of the students disagreed that time given to complete tasks was sufficient. Only 35% were positive. If such a number of students struggled to complete tasks, it would drain on their interest for the subject.

Question 6: Videos help me learn better. Nevertheless, on the question of whether videos help them learn better, in question six, 59% students agreed. Paradoxically, more students (52%) did not consider videos to be aiding understanding whilst the majority seem to believe that videos help them learn better.

Question 7: Video listening is a good opportunity for me to know about engineering field. As mentioned earlier that the institution where the research was conducted is an engineering one, in question seven, 54% students agreed that video listening gave them a good opportunity to know about engineering subjects. Although it is not a very big majority, it is positive enough to be noticed, showing that students are not absolutely negative about video listening.

Question 8: The quality of videos is good. Similarly, in question eight 54% students agreed that videos were of a good quality. The remaining 46% should be a cause for worry in as far as the quality of videos is concerned as they are closer to half the number of students.

Question 9: Video listening is better than audio listening. Notably, in question nine, 54% students disagreed that video listening was better than audio listening. Only 46% thought that video listening was better. This means that overall, more students preferred audio listening.

Question 10: I learnt how to take notes through video listening. On the question of whether students had learnt how to take notes in question ten; 56% disagreed which means that video listening had not helped many students learn the skill of note-taking. But 44% is not a small percentage, which means a sizable number of students did benefit.

Question 11: I could write a summary using the notes taken during listening. Similarly, the last

question (question eleven) that asked students whether they could write a summary using the notes after listening; 54% disagreed. This means that only 46% could write summaries using notes, which is understandable given that many of these students could not take notes during a video listening lesson.

Discussion

Findings indicate that the majority of both teachers and students do not perceive video listening interesting. The research, however, did not set out to establish the causes for lack of interest. Nonetheless, although the level of lack of interest is not shared by the largest majority, we might infer that since students were largely expected to take notes during all the video listening sessions, the fact that the majority of teachers and students were of the perception that this was not happening, it would invariably lower the interest level. Also, the fact that more than half the number of students (52%) indicated that they did not like listening classes may result to a low level of interest for video listening. In addition, Sokirkina (2010) has highlighted the fact that students in Sultan Qaboos University, an institution with students who share the same profile with those in this study, faced such difficulties in a listening class as failure to understand the speech of native speakers; struggled with intonation patterns and sounds of the English language; failure to distinguish similar sounds between the target language (English) and their mother tongue (Arabic); and the challenge to hold the message in their auditory until it is processed. These are most likely to affect not only the level of interest in the listening class but students' ability to complete tasks. In fact, whilst half the number of teachers considers time allocated to be enough for students to complete tasks, the majority of students (65%) do not think so. The reality however, could be that time needed by students to complete tasks is far above the required owing to these problems highlighted by Sokirkina (*ibid*).

Harmer (*ibid*) points out that among the problems encountered by learners in a listening lesson is comprehension which may result from a more challenging task than their level. In this research it does not seem to be the case as the majority of students felt that tasks were appropriate for the level – even half the number of teachers concurred. This means the inability for students to take notes was not resulting from the difficulty of tasks. The only possibility could be the time given to complete tasks. Most students agreed that this was a problem, despite only half the number of teachers agreeing. Nevertheless, as explained above, time to complete tasks may have not been necessarily inadequate, but the generally perceived difficulty of a listening course could be the cause.

It is interesting to note that whilst on the one hand both teachers and students consider video listening to be helpful in bettering learning, on the other hand more than half the number of students does not regard video listening to be fostering understanding as opposed to the majority of teachers who think it does. The possibility could be that theoretically, students expect to learn better through video listening whilst in reality they do not seem to improve in understanding the listening material; whilst similarly teachers theorize that students should get better understanding with video listening. This might be caused by tasks that require students to listen but find themselves distracted by visuals. This could be solved by employing some of the techniques suggested by Harmer (*op. cit.)* whereby for instance, the teacher covers the screen so that students need only listen. In the study carried out by Hsu et al. (2013) among elementary students about the effects of video caption modes on English listening

comprehension, they report that listening comprehension did not improve.   Whilst acknowledging that their results are contrary to many carried out among tertiary students, they reasoned out that the possibility for their results lies in the fact that elementary school students have lesser English vocabulary compared to university students. It is possible therefore that the vocabulary in the videos was slightly higher than most students' level.

Furthermore, it appears that video listening is not successful in helping students with note-taking skills. There are many possible reasons why students were unable to successfully master note-taking through video listening. One reason could be that visuals made it difficult for them to watch and take notes at the same time. This is especially possible when considering the fact that both visual and audio messages need mental processing before they can be written, which would require more time if they are presented at the same time. It therefore becomes difficult to view and write at the same time, but easier to listen and write because eyes are needed for both writing and viewing but not for listening. One solution to this could be to use audio materials exclusively so that students would be trained in listening and writing. Visuals could then be added to create context. In fact, when considering that a typical lecture does not have much visuals except the lecturer who uses writing equipment such as whiteboard, or projects notes through overhead projector or data projector, training students to take notes would therefore require that they are familiarized with a lecture discourse which is accessed through listening. Furthermore, Engin et al. (2016) acknowledged the usefulness of out-of-class video input although students still needed in-class teacher explanations. Therefore, it is possible that teachers expected students to learn through videos on their own whereas students needed teacher explanations.

Most notably, the research established that students and teachers perceived audio listening to be better than video listening. This is albeit the benefits that teachers and students recognize, such as helping them access engineering subject matter and helping them learn better. In other words, video listening is not altogether a failure, but the move to replace audio listening must have been premature or misinformed. In fact, Scrivener (*ibid*), Harmer (*ibid*), and Wilson (*ibid*) seem to suggest that listening lessons should have variety which video listening appears to offer, but have not argued for the total replacement of audio listening. Notwithstanding, in a study conducted by Herron et al. (2016), it was found that students who were exposed to a video-based instructional package performed better in listening skills and grammar knowledge. This means that the perception that students and teachers have about audio listening being better than video listening does not find support in other research studies such as Lee's et al (2015) who praise the use of videos for its ability to enhance listening comprehension in a foreign language classroom.

Those who supported the replacement of audio listening with video listening in the institution where the study was conducted argued that when students attend a lecture, they are expected to take notes as the lecture is presented live with the lecturer present in person, which is not the case with audio listening. In other words, they argued that such a situation could be mimicked by a video lecture. What they failed to consider is that a lecture is a two-way communication where the lecturer can pause for clarifications and could respond to students' queries as the lecture progresses, which is not possible with video especially when viewed by approximately twenty students or more.

Conclusion

The research set out to establish whether the move to replace audio listening with video listening benefitted students especially in helping them acquire note-taking skills. Overall, the general perception of video listening is not negative, but preference is for audio listening. Such preference could be interpreted as reflecting students' inability to master note-taking skills that video listening ought to have facilitated. In fact, it appears that the expectation for video listening to help with attainment of note-taking skills was misplaced. That is, video listening is most likely to be a hindrance given the fact that viewing and writing require students to use their eyes simultaneously which put undue pressure on writing what has been viewed and heard at the same time. However, because most recent research supports the use of videos and reports positive findings, there is a need to further interrogate the preference for audio listening. Perhaps an experimental study may indicate whether this perception is in sync with actual attainment or whether it is a matter of paradigm shift resistance.

In the light of this, it is recommended that further research with an experimental design be conducted in order to establish whether it would be appropriate to propose that listening be carried out predominantly through audio materials especially when seeking to train students to take notes. Undoubtedly, video listening should still be utilized in such instances as exposing students to subject matter that require explicit context for clarity purposes. Video listening would also be beneficial is creating variety, but should be utilized with appropriate tasks that match input; i.e. tasks that could be achieved better through audio listening should not be set for video listening.

Acknowledgement

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Greek Language Development and awareness of Ancient Greek Philosophy: Introducing a Content-based Project to Immigrant Students

Isaak M. Papadopoulos & Anastasia Kalafati

Greek Language Development and awareness of Ancient Greek Philosophy: Introducing a Content-based Project to Immigrant Students

Isaak M. Papadopoulos[1] & Anastasia Kalafati[2]

PhD Candidate in Applied Linguistics, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, PhD Candidate in Education, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki.
Email: isaakpapad@itl.auth.gr, alexandria1_4@hotmail.com

Abstract

This paper outlines the rationale for and the purpose of designing a thematic project based on themes of history of Greek philosophy for bilingual students in Greek primary education. More specifically, it presents a descriptive account of a thematic project to be introduced with the aim to develop not only L2 skills of immigrant children attending Greek primary schools but also their knowledge about the history of Greek philosophy within a multimodal context. The importance of such a project stems from the growing number of bilingual students in Greek primary education because of the fact that Greece has been an immigrant receiving country for the last two decades. The proposed project aims at promoting aspects of the history of the Greek philosophy and developing the language skills of bilingual students in Greek as a second language

Bionotes

[1] PhD Candidate in Applied Linguistics, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, isaakpapad@itl.auth.gr

Isaak Papadopoulos has been a PhD candidate in Applied Linguistics and Teaching a Second/Foreign language (Aristotle University of Thessaloniki) & Oral examiner for the Department of Education of Ireland while he is currently working as a Teachers' Trainer. He holds a bachelor in Primary School Education (University of Western Macedonia, Greece) and a master degree in Dyslexia and Foreign Language learning (University Roma 3, Italy). His research and publication interests include the teaching of the second/foreign language, the early language learning as well as multilingualism and multiculturalism. He has participated and attended many conferences while he has been coordinating several projects about innovative practices in language learning and training of oral examiners. He has published many papers in international journals and he has published his first coursebook entitled "Sophronius and Helen in the traces of Greek culture: thematic units for foreign language learners".

[2] PhD Candidate in Education, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, alexandria1_4@hotmail.com

Anastasia Kalafati is a primary school teacher. She holds a master degree in School Leadership and management (University of Nicosia, Cyprus) and she is a PhD Candidate at the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki in the field of Education. Her research interests include the academic capitalism and its impact on knowledge and the position of philosophy in Greek educational system.

through their participation in various inquiry and creative writing activities as well as in activities of intergroup conversation and oral presentations. Given the fact that most of the content-based practices in Greece focus on a combination of language development with a typical school subject, this project is suggested to include themes of Greek philosophy and more specifically some of the most representative Philosophers so that bilingual students can raise their awareness of the era of philosophical research in Greece. For the evaluation of the effectiveness and feasibility of this thematic project, the researchers propose three methodological tools; a) a pre- and post- test to examine the language development progress and students' knowledge about the history of Greek philosophy, b) teacher's/researcher's journals and c) students' portfolios.

Keywords: Second Language, Clil, History of Philosophy, Communicative Skills .

Introduction
Greece has been the host country of immigrant populations for the last two decades while the growing number of bilingual students in Greek education constitutes an additional challenge for teachers and the country as well (Papadopoulos & Griva, 2015). This fact has been in accordance with the tries of the Greek state to help these populations through the practices in the Greek schools while CLIL is believed to be a very popular and helpful methodology that can serve beneficially for these students (Papadopoulos & Griva, 2014).

However, most of the CLIL programs in Greece have come to include mainly the typical school subjects and they do not cover themes of "Greek philosophy" despite the fact that students engagement in philosophy and philosophical research can lead to cognitive development especially when it has been already proved that CLIL is a dual focused methodology than can develop students' language skills and the knowledge of the subject studied.

Although philosophy holds emblematic place in the global civilization, in its birthplace (Greece) students are deprived of any contact with the philosophical thought within the educational system. The international literature dissociates whether children can deal with philosophy or not (Nikolidaki, 2005). The approach P4C (Philosphy for Children) has indicated advantageous outcomes concerning the engagement of children (4-12 years old) with the philosophy as a research and interactive process (Theodoropoulou, 2013). This paper does not aim to highlight the arguments of both sides as it approaches philosophy as a cultural element with which bilingual language students have to come into contact learn about and understand the offer of Greek thought in European culture.

"Philosophy" can be a vague definition which many people and especially young students are familiar with. However, with the help of the teacher, the students can approach it as a reflection on their thinking ability development and discover its logical sequence. Furthermore, dealing with important philosophers, students can understand the importance of rationality in the formation of Western civilization, the difficulty of the definitions of concepts and the importance of this process and the important role of carefully listening to a dialogue- philosophical or not.

The Proposed Project
Rationale and the objectives of the project
The proposed project is to be implemented in primary schools of Larissa (Central Greece), where

there are a large number of immigrant children of Albanian origin. Having considered the feasibility of CLIL approach in international studies (Stoller, 2004; Linares & Whitaker 2007; Mehisto & Asser, 2008) and in national ones (Papadopoulos & Griva 2015; Griva et al, 2014a; Griva et al, 2014b; Griva & Kasvikis, 2014), we propose a thematic CLIL project based on Greek philosophy. Furthermore, the limited number of studies carried out as well as projects implemented in Greece with Greek as a second language (GL2) as a medium of instruction was another reason for proposing this project (Papadopoulos & Griva, 2015).

This educational intervention aims at developing students' second language skills and enhancing their awareness of the Greek philosophy.

More specifically, the CLIL project is being introduced to serve the dual aim of:

- Developing immigrant students' productive language skills (speaking and writing) in Greek as a second language
- Enhancing immigrant students' awareness of the Ancient Greek philosophy and the representative philosophers of antiquity.

Design of the Project

This CLIL module is designed in the form of topic-based sessions in which students will be engaged in inquiry and creative writing activities as well as in conversations and presentations regarding tasks that will have to carry out throughout this program about the Greek philosophers.

In this framework, the expected learning outcomes involve the development of the students':

i) Cognitive skills, through the students' engagement in inquiry and knowledge-based activities about the Greek philosophers and their theories. Students will develop their awareness in terms of Ancient Greek philosophy, through their engagement in content-based activities about the teachings of ancient Philosophers that have been a part of Greek culture and education.

ii) Communication skills, through their participation in creative writing activities, intergroup conversations, investigations and oral presentations where students will be asked to express their views using Greek as a medium of communication in authentic situations.

The Philosophers of this proposed project were selected on the basis of including the most representative ones. Philosophers that were selected for this program are important figures that constituted milestones in philosophical thought. Their "brightness" goes beyond the Greek borders and makes them personalities with a global focus which influenced and continues to influence the thinking of each nation. They are a constant reminder that the thought and knowledge know no borders but they are developed and enriched by passing from people to people. Students, who will participate in it, will have the opportunity to come into contact with important personalities of antiquity, with their lives and their teachings through a foreign language.

This proposed project will be delivered in 4 units encompassing an introduction to Greek philosophy and 3 well-known Philosophers of Greece.

Introduction to Greek Philosophy

Students will be introduced to Greek philosophy through the activities that have been designed by the teachers of this action research. They will realize its importance in the Greek history and

they will be provided with information useful for the continuation of this programme. This part of the proposed program is very important as it aims at activating the background knowledge of students, introducing them in the thematic area of Ancient Philosophy and placing special emphasis on the important philosophers that students will focus on in a later stage of the program.

Thales from Miletus (640 or 624 BC - 546 BC)

The students will have the opportunity to learn about the oldest Pre-Socratic philosopher, the first of the seven sages of antiquity, mathematician, physicist, astronomer, engineer, meteorologist and founder of the Ionian School of natural philosophy in Miletus. Based on the information of his life, they will be engaged in inquiry activities that can help them realize that the philosophers who followed chronologically consider Thales as the first Greek philosopher. Thales had come to have all the characteristics of the first investigator, trying to dispel the darkness of myths and prove the causes of natural phenomena. Lastly, it is worth mentioning that the Ionian philosophers inspired by the spirit of Thales pave the way for Western science.

Socrates (470 BC or 469 BC - 399 BC)

Throughout this unit, students will develop their knowledge about the Greek Athenian philosopher and one of the most important figures of world thought. He has been a milestone in the history of philosophy, which is evidenced by characterizing the philosophers who lived before him as pre-Socratic ones. His work consisted of numerous philosophical dialogues - recorded mainly by his pupil, Plato- which were based on the maieutic (obstetrics) method for the emergence of truth. The thought and the way of life that was also in accordance with his teachings, fertilized the thought of important philosophers, both ancient as Plato and Aristotle and modern ones.

Aristotle (384 Stagira - Halkida 322 BC)

The bilingual students will participate also in the unit focusing on this ancient Greek philosopher that dealt with many sciences. At the age of 17, an apprentice at the Academy of Plato, was closely linked to his master and had remained close to him for almost 20 years. After the death of Plato, he left Athens and on the orders of Philip, undertook the teaching of Alexander the Great. Aristotle is the cornerstone of Western civilization and is regarded as the homo universalis that deals with almost every aspect of sciences and knowledge: physics, biology, zoology, metaphysics, logic, ethics, poetry, theater, music, rhetoric, policy. Aristotle organized and officially lays the foundations of Western thought.

Implementation

The project is designed to include 20 intervention sessions focused on the thematic area of "Greek Philosophers". Special emphasis will be placed on the creation of an environment in which research, communication and active participation will be the basic characteristics while a pleasant and creative learning environment, where students actually could develop personal and interpersonal skills (Papadopoulos, 2014) is among the aims as well. Thus, students will have the chance to come into contact with some of the Greek philosophers of antiquity, analyse, examine and present information that they will find out and they are aimed to create a context with

collaboration, interaction and communication.

This pilot project is to be carried out through three stages:

a) Pre-stage

The focus of this stage will be stressed on activating students' background knowledge. Before starting, the teacher will introduce students in the lesson by activating background knowledge and motivating students by introducing the target Philosopher. There will be used multimodal educational material to initiate discussion, such as power point slides, videos and pictures of the philosophers. Meanwhile, the students will be encouraged to express their queries, interact and participate in initial discussions about the Greek philosophers while coming across the necessary vocabulary.

b) Task-circle

Throughout the main stage of every session, the students will be placed in the center of the learning process being provided with opportunities for communication and interaction with the classmates and the teacher. They will be involved in various inquiry-based activities and have the opportunity to investigate, collaborate interact and communicate with each other, while trying to "discover" a new philosopher each time.

Following are stated the activities that students will participate in while the teacher will act as facilitator by easing anxiety, creating an enjoyable learning atmosphere and encouraging the children's interaction, creativity and use of imagination.

Among the activities the students will participate in are:

- **Creative writing activities**, in which student will think creatively and critically writing their own stories placing themselves in as heroes and figures of the era studied each time. Besides creating a safe and stress-free environment for language use and development, creative writing activities can help students' cognitive development as they can decrease the "emotional filter" and students do not feel stressed and they gain knowledge.

- **Game-based activities**, in which students will learn about the Philosophers being engaged in physical and board games whose role has been proved to be beneficial for the language development and the knowledge acquisition in many studies (Papadopoulos & Griva 2015; Papadopoulos et al., 2014; Griva & Semoglou, 2013). Bilingual students may develop their listening comprehension while listening to the rule of the games and their speaking skill while playing and interacting with their coplayers (Papadopoulos & Griva, 2015; Griva & Chostelidou, 2012)

- **Dramatizations** as learning a language is reasonably considered as an important process and a unique experience for both old and young students and dramatization of stories was proved to be beneficial (Papadopoulos, 2014). Positivity, motivation and encouragement of students are a necessary characteristic for students to pursue and achieve the best possible language outcome (Arnold, 1999; Tomlinson, 1998c, 1998d) while the dramatizations of stories and the philosophers teaching can constitute a context in which language is used, developed and understood by students (Krashen, 1985).

- **Task-based activities** because they constitute an entirely natural way to learning by doing rather than by memorizing sentence patterns (Nunan, 2002: 23). Also, a task-based activity allows students' working on meaningful tasks and use language to accomplish those tasks' (Hudelson, op. cit.) offering chances for cooperation and interaction with the classmates (Papadopoulos & Peiou, 2014) while this kind of activities are implemented effectively in CLIL programs in Greece (Papadopoulos & Griva, 2015; Griva & Chostelidou, 2012).

c) Follow-up stage

The focus of the follow up stage will be on the provision of teachers' continuous feedback and students' reflection on the learning process as well as on recycling certain specific vocabulary. After students' engagement in activities based on each Philosopher, the teacher will try also to engage them in discussions based on what they will have read in an environment where reflection is of major importance. Also, students in this stage will be motivated to transform their own knowledge and what they will learn through each session and produce their own texts, passages, videos and so on. People use an array of communication strategies from which they choose in situations where persuasion is necessary and in this stage, students are to enhance their creativity by producing their own texts and by integrating elements that they will have learnt or examined during the above mentioned procedure. Of course, the continuous feedback of the teacher and the interaction of students on the "Greek Philosophers" theme with each other will help them use Greek as a Second Language competently as a tool of authentic communication.

Evaluation of the Project

a) **a pre- and post- test of Language and Philosophy**

For the estimation of the efficacy of the CLIL project in relation to content and the target language (GL2), there will be used a pre-test at the beginning of the programme and a post-test after the completion of it in order to identify the students' cognitive level related to aspects of Greek Philosophy, as well as their competence in GL2. Students' will be asked to choose the correct answer in multiple choice activities, crosswords, matches and creative writing activities as game-based activities are an effective way to evaluate students' performance (Papadopoulos, 2014).

b) **The journal of the researcher/teacher**

The journal keep will constitute another methodological tool that will be used by the researchers/teachers because of the fact that it is a very effective tool to assess experimental and educational interventions organized by teachers (Altrichter et al, 1993; Papadopoulos & Griva, 2014; Griva & Chostelidou, 2012). The researcher will keep notes and recordings after each teaching session putting special emphasis on the students' continuous examining and questioning themes of Greek philosophers. The structure of the journal will be based on the "questions to guide reflection journal entries" of Richards & Lockhart (Richards & Lockhart, 1994: 16 -17) as follows:

More specifically, the first focus-area will consist of three questions about the objectives

set a priori by the teacher and the extent they will be fulfilled. Also, it will include questions about the teaching material that will be used and it will examine their effectiveness. Finally, it will also focus on the forms of communication among the students and between the students and the teacher.

The second area is related to the students' attitude and participation, including a question about the attitude of the students at the beginning, during and at the end of the activity in response to the educational needs of students. The final area is related to an overall estimation of the instruction and it will contain two questions on possible problems that may arise as well as the points that the teaching will have gone well, always giving possible explanations by the teacher with supplementary proposals to improve the teaching sessions.

The structure of the journal that is proposed is presented in the following table:

Teacher's/Researcher's Journal	
a) Questions about instruction	1. What objectives did I set? To what extend did I achieve them? 2. What teaching material did I use? How effective were the teaching aids? 3. What forms of communication among students and the teacher were used?
b) Questions about students' attitude and participation	1. Which was the students' attitude at the beginning, middle and at the end of each activity? How did I react?
c) Questions about the general estimation of the instruction.	1) What went well and what did not? Why? 2) What could I change? Why?

c) Students' Portfolios

Students' portfolios will also be a methodological tool throughout this project that can help students' self-assessment. Keeping portfolios, recording your strengths and weaknesses and keeping games, constructions, stories and poems in folders is believed to be advantageous for language learners. In fact, portfolio keeping was chosen thanks to their beneficial role on students' thinking abilities and the development of organizational ones that may be useful for

students' future life (Papadopoulos & Peiou, 2014; Wade & Yarbrough, 1996). As for the language and cognitive field, keeping portfolios in the language class has been proved to be advantageous and help students develop meta-cognitive skills (Brown, 2002; Young, 2002).

Concluding Remarks
Through this proposed project, we expect that the children can exhibit both linguistic and cognitive development. This program encompasses themes of Greek philosophy and aims at developing the language skills of L2 students in Greek as a second language within a CLIL context with content about Greek philosophy. Although most practices for immigrant students focus on their language development it is of utmost importance for these populations to be engaged in culture-based learning environments related to the culture of the host country.

Immigrant students in Greece which is the birthplace of Philosophy will have the opportunity to "navigate" through the philosophical research and develop their communicative skills and their knowledge in the history and the evolution of Greek philosophy.

The project encompasses a variety of functional activities such as comparisons, discoveries, problem solving and interaction. Through them, students are aimed to develop receptive and productive skills but on top of that, the themes function as vehicles for contextualizing L2 in a way which makes sense to the L2 learners while the language input is tried to be not only comprehensible, but also memorable.

The task based activities are ideally addressed to L2 learners because they present an entirely natural way to learning by doing rather than by memorizing sentence patterns (Nunan, 2002: 23) and content. Greek philosophy which the immigrant students may not be aware of can become a meaningful task that students will work on, they will realize how language works in authentic situations and they will interact and collaborate with their classmates using Greek as a medium of communication.

Also, the creative and game-based activities enhance the multimodal learning environment in which students will try to develop language and their cognition and it can constitute the ideal environment in which touch of languages and cultures can be achieved. The students will be offered rich and meaningful input about Greek philosophy in a language that is not their mother tongue. So, in such a context, students will feel free and relaxed and they will be not concerned with the errors that are very possible when dealing with an unknown content and especially when it is given in another language while they will also pay particular attention to the continuous feedback of the teacher and their classmates.

Finally, this proposed project has been designed to be in accordance with the process of Greece to comply with the European plans for multilingualism and multiculturalism. The immigrant students who come to Greece will be offered a wide range of input that is related not only to language but to culture of the host country generally. Without any try and fear of losing their national identity and touch, bilingual students can develop their being open to other cultures and know the others while Greek schools try at the same time to develop the Greek students' multicultural awareness so that they can create an environment with constructive interaction and collaborate among nations starting with the foundations, the children.

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The Contribution of Literature in Literacy Development: The Example of the Modern Greek Language Textbook of the Third Grade of Junior High School

Evagelia Aravani & Maria Dimasi

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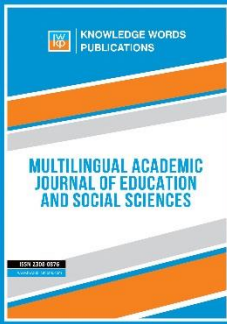
The Contribution of Literature in Literacy Development: The Example of the Modern Greek Language Textbook of the Third Grade of Junior High School

Η συμβολή της λογοτεχνίας στην ανάπτυξη του γραμματισμού: το παράδειγμα του σχολικού εγχειριδίου της Νεοελληνικής Γλώσσας της Γ΄ Γυμνασίου

Evagelia Aravani[1] & Maria Dimasi[2]
Ευαγγελία Αραβανή & Μαρία Δημάση
[1]University of Athens, School of Philosophy, Department of Greek Literature,
[2]Democritus University of Thrace, in the Department of Languages

Abstract
This paper, entitled 'The contribution of literature in literacy development: the example of the Modern Greek Language textbook of the Third Grade of Junior High School', studies the textbook of the Third Grade of Junior High School with reference to the included literary texts and their contribution to the achievement of language literacy. After a brief theoretical section, which focuses on the concept of literacy and the relationship of literature and language teaching, the

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B**ionotes**

[1] **Evagelia Aravani** has studied Greek Literature at the University of Athens, School of Philosophy, Department of Greek Literature, wherein she obtained her master in "Theory and Practice of Teaching and Evaluation" and PhD with the subject: "The Pedagogical and Psychological Dimension in the Teaching of Literature". Her activity as a scientist, researcher and author centers in the domain of Ancient and Greek Language and Literature teaching methodology, with publications in Greek and international journals and Conference proceedings.

[2] **Maria Dimasi** is Associate Professor at Democritus University of Thrace, in the Department of Languages, Literature and Culture of Black Sea Countries. Her research interests include language and literature didactics in Greece and in Black Sea Countries. She has published many books and articles related to didactics, language teaching and language curricula in Greece and in the Black Sea Counties.

relevant references to the goal-setting of the Language course through Integrated Inter-Thematic Framework of Study Curricula -DEPPS-, Detailed Study Curriculum -APS-, Educational Directives and New Curricula are recorded. Then, the literary texts of the language textbook are presented, categorized according to generic criteria, and their association with the language teaching-related goal-setting of each section is investigated. For this association, elements of Geometric Analysis (linkage of content - teaching options - goal-setting) are utilized for the first time. The processing and analysis of the data lead to the finding that literature contributes to the achievement of literacy, defined, however, within the broader educational and socio-cultural context.

Keywords: Literature, Literacy, Textbook, Junior High School.

Περίληψη

Η εργασία με τίτλο: Η συμβολή της λογοτεχνίας στην ανάπτυξη του γραμματισμού: η περίπτωση του σχολικού εγχειριδίου της Νεοελληνικής Γλώσσας της Γ΄ Γυμνασίου μελετά το σχολικό εγχειρίδιο της Γλώσσας της Γ΄ Γυμνασίου με σημείο αναφοράς τα εμπεριεχόμενα λογοτεχνικά κείμενα και τη συμβολή τους στην κατάκτηση του γλωσσικού γραμματισμού. Μετά τη σύντομη θεωρητική πλαισίωση που επικεντρώνεται στην έννοια του γραμματισμού και τη σχέση λογοτεχνίας και γλωσσικής διδασκαλίας, καταγράφονται σχετικές αναφορές στη στοχοθεσία του μαθήματος της Γλώσσας μέσω του ΔΕΠΠΣ, ΑΠΣ, των Εκπαιδευτικών Οδηγιών και των Νέων Προγραμμάτων Σπουδών. Στη συνέχεια παρουσιάζονται κατηγοριοποιημένα με ειδολογικά κριτήρια τα λογοτεχνικά κείμενα του γλωσσικού εγχειριδίου και διερευνάται η σύνδεσή τους με τη γλωσσοδιδακτική στοχοθεσία κάθε ενότητας. Για τη σύνδεση αυτή αξιοποιούνται στοιχεία της γεωμετρικής ανάλυσης (σύνδεση περιεχομένων- διδακτικών επιλογών-στοχοθεσίας) για πρώτη φορά. Η επεξεργασία και η ανάλυση των δεδομένων οδηγούν στη διαπίστωση ότι η λογοτεχνία συμβάλλει στην κατάκτηση του γραμματισμού οριοθετημένου, όμως, στο ευρύτερο σχολικό και κοινωνικο-πολιτισμικό συγκείμενο..

Λέξειςκλειδιά: λογοτεχνία, γραμματισμός, σχολικό εγχειρίδιο, Γυμνάσιο.

Εισαγωγή

Οι νεότερες προσεγγίσεις στη διδακτική της γλώσσας, όπως καταγράφονται τόσο στα θεσμικά κείμενα (ΠΣ/ΑΠΣ) για τη διδασκαλία του μαθήματος όσο και στη διεθνή επιστημονική βιβλιογραφία, δίνουν πλέον έμφαση στην ύπαρξη μιας συνεχώς διαμορφούμενης ποικιλίας μορφών κειμένου που φέρνει τα άτομα-μαθητές αντιμέτωπα με μια κατάσταση η οποία απαιτεί, για την προσέγγιση και την κατανόησή της, γλωσσικές, επικοινωνιακές και κοινωνικές δεξιότητες. Η γλωσσική διδασκαλία έχει ως σκοπό την εξέλιξη των μαθητών σε κριτικά σκεπτόμενους πολίτες, οι οποίοι θα μπορούν να ελέγχουν και να διαχειριστούν τη ζωή τους διά του λόγου και να είναι σε θέση να συνδιαμορφώνουν κριτικά το πολιτικό, κοινωνικό και πολιτισμικό γίγνεσθαι (για τη συζήτηση γύρω από τα κειμενικά είδη βλ. Δημάση, Σαχινίδου, 2014: 133-145).

Η θεωρητική πλαισίωση της παρούσας εργασίας επικεντρώνεται στην παιδαγωγική του γραμματισμού με βάση τα κειμενικά είδη που οικοδομεί ένα πλαίσιο αρχών και πρακτικών γραμματισμού, το οποίο βασίζεται σε δύο κύριες παραδοχές: αναγνωρίζει, καταρχήν, ως βασική μονάδα προσδιορισμού του γραμματισμού το κειμενικό είδος, όπως αυτό διαμορφώνεται από το εκάστοτε κοινωνικοπολιτισμικό συγκείμενο και ορίζει ως κύριο μέσο κατάκτησης του

σχολικού γραμματισμού την επεξεργασία και την παραγωγή των γραπτών, κυρίως, κειμενικών ειδών που θεωρούνται σημαντικά για τον προσδιορισμό και τη μετάδοση της γνώσης σε ποικίλους επιστημονικούς τομείς (Cope & Kalantzis 1993· Δημάση, 2012: 27-28· Kress, 1987). Μέσω αυτής της προσέγγισης καθιερώνεται ένας ισότιμος διάλογος μεταξύ της κουλτούρας και του λόγου της σχολικής εκπαίδευσης ως θεσμού αφενός και της κουλτούρας και του λόγου των μαθητών αφετέρου (Δημάση & Σαχινίδου, 2010: 1-17). Αυτό σημαίνει πως οι τελευταίοι εξοικειώνονται με τα διαφορετικά κειμενικά είδη που κυριαρχούν στη σχολική τους εκπαίδευση, προκειμένου να συνειδητοποιήσουν τις θεμελιώδεις διαφορές μεταξύ προφορικού και γραπτού λόγου, αλλά και τις διαφορετικές γλωσσικές δομές βάσει των οποίων οργανώνεται η γλώσσα των γνωστικών αντικειμένων τα οποία διδάσκονται (Pappas & Zecker, 2006).

Στο πλαίσιο αυτής της θεώρησης της γλωσσικής διδασκαλίας αναπτύσσεται και η προβληματική για τη θέση της λογοτεχνίας σε ένα γλωσσικό πρόγραμμα σπουδών. Όσον αφορά την ελληνική εκπαίδευση, η δυνατότητα και ο τρόπος αξιοποίησης λογοτεχνικών κειμένων στη διδασκαλία της/των γλώσσας/ών γενικά και ειδικότερα της νέας ελληνικής όπως αποτυπώνεται στα -κατά περίπτωση χρησιμοποιούμενα- σχολικά εγχειρίδια έχει αποτελέσει το επίκεντρο επιστημονικών συζητήσεων και αμφισβητήσεων (βλ. ενδεικτικά: Αγγελάκος, 2006, Δανιηλίδου, 2007, Ιορδανίδου, 2006, Ντίνας & Ξανθόπουλος, 2010, Τσολάκης, 2006, Χατζησαββίδης, Χαραλαμπόπουλος, 1997).

Η παρούσα εργασία, βασιζόμενη στο σχετικό διάλογο, εστιάζει στη μελέτη του σχολικού εγχειριδίου Νεοελληνικής Γλώσσας της Γ΄ Γυμνασίου με σημείο αναφοράς τα είδη των εμπεριεχομένων λογοτεχνικών κειμένων, η μελέτη των οποίων συναρτάται με τις ερωτήσεις και τις εργασίες-δραστηριότητες που τα συνοδεύουν, αρθρώνοντας τη διδακτική ενότητα. Με την προσέγγιση αυτή επιχειρείται η αποτύπωση των γλωσσοδιδακτικών στόχων και της συνάφειας του περιεχομένου και των διδακτικών επιλογών με τη σκοποθεσία-στοχοθεσία του μαθήματος, όπως διατυπώνεται στα αντίστοιχα θεσμικά κείμενα. ΔΕΠΠΣ - ΑΠΣ (2003) και νέο (2011), καθώς και εκπαιδευτικές οδηγίες μελετώνται, επίσης, όσον αφορά τη θέση της λογοτεχνίας στη διδασκαλία της Νεοελληνικής γλώσσας στο Γυμνάσιο.

Λογοτεχνια Και Γλωσσικη Διδασκαλια[3]
Η αξιοποίηση της λογοτεχνίας στη γλωσσική διδασκαλία απασχόλησε αρκετά τον επιστημονικό διάλογο. Οι συνηθέστερες διαφωνίες ως προς τη χρήση της για την ικανοποίηση των στόχων της διδασκαλίας της γλώσσας, όπως αυτοί καταγράφονται -κατά περίπτωση- στα θεσμικά κείμενα,

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[3] Η μελέτη των σχολικών εγχειριδίων για τη διδασκαλία της ελληνικής γλώσσας, και μάλιστα αυτών της Πρωτοβάθμιας Εκπαίδευσης, αναδεικνύει μια πορεία που ακολουθεί τις επιστημονικές απόψεις: από τα εγχειρίδια διδασκαλίας της γλώσσας τα οποία εφάρμοζαν την παραδοσιακή μέθοδο (βλ. Μήτσης, 2002: 133-136) και των οποίων τα περιεχόμενα ουσιαστικά αποτελούσαν λογοτεχνικές ανθολογίες διαρθρωμένες σε αξιακούς άξονες με κύρια σημεία αναφοράς τον εθνικό, τον θρησκευτικό και τον κοινωνικό βίο (βλ. Δημάση, 1990), στα εγχειρίδια της δομιστικής προσέγγισης και των «κατασκευασμένων» κειμένων για την εξυπηρέτηση συγκεκριμένων γλωσσοδιδακτικών στόχων (βλ. Βουγιούκας, 1994), στα περιεχόμενα των οποίων εκφράστηκε η πλήρης αμφισβήτηση της θέσης της λογοτεχνίας στο γλωσσικό μάθημα, και τέλος στα εγχειρίδια διδασκαλίας της Νεοελληνικής γλώσσας τα οποία διδάσκονται σήμερα, ακολουθούν τις αρχές του γραμματισμού και των πολυγραμματισμών και στα οποία η λογοτεχνία αξιοποιείται υπό προϋποθέσεις, προσφέροντας κείμενα εντασσόμενα στις ταξινομίες κειμένων για σχολική/διδακτική χρήση.

μπορούν να συνοψισθούν στα εξής: η λογοτεχνία εξαιτίας της δομικής πολυπλοκότητας και της μοναδικής χρήσης της γλώσσας της, πολύ λίγο συνεισφέρει στην επίτευξη των στόχων που αφορούν τη διδασκαλία της γραμματικής (αναφορικά με τη διδασκαλία ειδικότερα μιας ξένης γλώσσας). Η λογοτεχνία, επίσης, συχνά αντανακλά μία ιδιαίτερη πολιτισμική αντίληψη, επομένως, σε ένα εννοιολογικό επίπεδο μπορεί να είναι δύσκολη για τους μαθητές (Turker, 1991: 303).

Οι προβληματισμοί αυτοί οδήγησαν στην ανάπτυξη θέσεων και επιχειρημάτων για τους λόγους και τους τρόπους της ουσιαστικής και αποτελεσματικής αξιοποίησής της στη διδασκαλία της γλώσσας.

Μελέτες οι οποίες δημοσιεύτηκαν την τελευταία δεκαετία αναφέρουν τέσσερις λόγους που συνηγορούν υπέρ της επιλογής λογοτεχνικών κειμένων στη διαμόρφωση περιεχομένων του γλωσσικού μαθήματος και *συνδέονται με το γεγονός ότι η λογοτεχνία, α) αποτελεί μεγάλης αξίας αυθεντικό υλικό (Valuable Authentic Material), β) συμβάλλει στην ενίσχυση της πολιτισμικής συνείδησης (Cultural Enrichment), γ) συμβάλλει στην ενίσχυση της γλωσσικής συνείδησης (Language Enrichment) και δ) ενθαρρύνει την προσωπική εμπλοκή του μαθητή (Personal Involvement)* [Paran, 2008· Barın, 2007 (στο Μαρκάτη, 2015: 212-213)· Cruz, 2010: 12· Hişmanoğlu, 2005: 54].

Είναι σημαντική, επομένως, η συμβολή της λογοτεχνίας στην ανάπτυξη του γραμματισμού εν γένει αλλά και του κριτικού γραμματισμού ιδιαίτερα, δεδομένου ότι πραγματεύεται συχνά κοινωνικά ζητήματα τα οποία συνδέονται με σχετικά πρόδηλα αξιακά και ιδεολογικά στοιχεία ταυτοτήτων των υποκειμένων της γραφής και συνεπακόλουθα της ανάγνωσης, στο κατά περίπτωση κοινωνικοπολιτισμικό συγκείμενο της αναγνωστικής πράξης, και έτσι προσφέρονται για να ασκήσουν οι μαθητές τις αναλυτικές και κριτικές δεξιότητές τους (Lukin, 2008· Maxim, 2009). Η θεματολογία των λογοτεχνικών κειμένων, με άλλα λόγια, μέσα από τη διαχρονική και τη συγχρονική της διάσταση, διασφαλίζει τη δημιουργία κινήτρων ανάγνωσης και μπορεί να αποτελέσει την αφετηρία για τη δημιουργία ευκαιριών συζήτησης, αντιπαράθεσης και κριτικής σκέψης (Khatib & Rahimi, 2012: 33-34· Llach, 2007).

Μέσω της λογοτεχνίας, όπως επίσης και του πολιτισμού, οι μαθητές αναπτύσσουν μία οικεία σύνδεση με τη γλώσσα-στόχο, καθώς καθίστανται ενήμεροι για το πόσο αυτή αποτελεί ένα ζωντανό σύστημα το οποίο προσαρμόζεται σύμφωνα με τις ανάγκες των φυσικών ομιλητών της. Συνειδητοποιούν τη διεπιδραστική τροφοδότηση/ανατροφοδότηση μεταξύ των γλωσσών και των πολιτισμών σε ένα επίπεδο συμβολικών διαδικασιών (Cruz, 2010: 12).

Η αξιοποίηση λογοτεχνικού υλικού μπορεί να ικανοποιήσει και γλωσσοδιδακτικούς στόχους εμπλουτισμού του λεξιλογίου, ανάπτυξης της γλωσσικής αντίληψης, της γλωσσικής ικανότητας ή της «αίσθησης» της γλώσσας, *τόσο σχετικά με τις κυριολεκτικές όσο και με τις μη κυριολεκτικές/ σχηματικές σημασίες και τις ιδιομορφίες της φρασεολογίας και ειδικά για την πληρέστερη κατανόηση και κατάκτηση σύνθετων γραμματικών, συντακτικών και λεξιλογικών δομών* (Αγάθος, 2012: 624).

Οι παραπάνω απόψεις έχουν διατυπωθεί για τη διδασκαλία της γλώσσας γενικά και της δεύτερης/ξένης γλώσσας ειδικότερα με επισημάνσεις, όπως:

- η λογοτεχνία αποτελεί μια δημοφιλή τεχνική για τη διδασκαλία των βασικών γλωσσικών δεξιοτήτων (όπως η ανάγνωση, η γραφή, η ακρόαση και η ομιλία), καθώς και των γλωσσικών περιοχών (όπως είναι το λεξιλόγιο, η γραμματική και η προφορά). Η διδακτική αξιοποίηση της λογοτεχνίας συμβάλλει στην κατάκτηση του συνόλου των γλωσσικών

δεξιοτήτων υπό την προϋπόθεση μιας ολιστικής αντίληψης για τη γλωσσική διδασκαλία (Hişmanoğlu, 2005: 53)

-η λογοτεχνική ικανότητα, ως μέρος της γλωσσικής ικανότητας, είναι απαραίτητη για την απόκτηση της γλωσσικής ικανότητας στο υψηλότερο επίπεδο (Αγάθος, 2012).

Συνοψίζοντας, σημειώνουμε ότι η χρήση των λογοτεχνικών κειμένων στη διδασκαλία της γλώσσας:

1. μπορεί να συνδράμει όχι μόνο στη βελτίωση των αναγνωστικών, αλλά και των ακουστικών, των προφορικών και των γραπτών δεξιοτήτων

2. είναι δυνατόν να συμβάλλει στην πρόσληψη και την κατανόηση γενικών πληροφοριών σχετικά με τις εμπειρίες και τα γεγονότα της πραγματικής ζωής

3. μπορεί να στηρίξει την κατανόηση της ατομικής και της κοινωνικής ανάπτυξης, αφού οδηγούν τους αναγνώστες στη βελτίωση του εαυτού τους πολιτισμικά και εκπαιδευτικά, σύμφωνα με τα συναισθηματικά τους χαρακτηριστικά

4. έχει τη δυνατότητα να συμβάλλει στην απόκτηση αναλυτικών και κριτικών δεξιοτήτων από τους μαθητές

5. στην περίπτωση της διδασκαλίας μιας ξένης γλώσσας μπορεί να εξαλείψει παρεμβάσεις της μητρικής γλώσσας (Turker, 1991: 304).

Η Θεση της Λογοτεχνιας στα Προγραμματα Σπουδων της Νεας Ελληνικης Γλωσσας στο Γυμνασιο
Δεππς-ΑΠΣ Για τη Διδασκαλια της Ελληνικης Γλωσσας στο Γυμνασιο

Στους σκοπούς της διδασκαλίας του γλωσσικού μαθήματος στο ΔΕΠΠΣ και στο ΑΠΣ δεν υπάρχει ρητή αναφορά στη σχέση της λογοτεχνίας με τη γλωσσική διδασκαλία. Η σχέση αυτή ανιχνεύεται στα συνυποδηλούμενα που αναφέρονται στη σύνδεση γλωσσικού και (δια)πολιτισμικού γραμματισμού. Συγκεκριμένα, η λέξη *λογοτεχνία* αναφέρεται στις ενδεικτικές δραστηριότητες του ΑΠΣ σε όλες τις διδακτικές ενότητες όπου επιχειρείται η διαθεματική[4]

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[4] Αν και η σύνδεση λογοτεχνίας και γλωσσικής διδασκαλίας σχετίζεται με τη διαθεματικότητα στα σχολικά εγχειρίδια και στα προγράμματα σπουδών, ο εννοιολογικός προσδιορισμός της που καταγράφεται στην ήδη πλούσια ελληνική και ξένη βιβλιογραφία δεν αφορά την παρούσα εργασία. Περιοριζόμαστε στην υπενθύμιση σχετικών εργασιών:

-Γρόλλιος, Γ. (2008). *Το νέο Πρόγραμμα Σπουδών και η σύγχυση γύρω από τη διαθεματικότητα*. Διαθέσιμο στο:
http://users.sch.gr/maritheodo/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=118&Itemid=40 10/7/2008

-Ζούκης, Ν. (2008). *Η δια-επιστημονικότητα που μεταφράστηκε ως «διαθεματικότητα», η σημασία της ευαίσθητης εξάρτισης από τις αρχικές συνθήκες και η νέα προοπτική*. Διαθέσιμο στο: http://www.alfavita.gr/artra/artro20080308c.php 11/7/2008

-Θεοφιλίδης, Χρ. (2002). *Διαθεματική Προσέγγιση της Διδασκαλίας*. Αθήνα: Γρηγόρης.

-Καρατζιά-Σταυλιώτη, Ε. (2002). Η διαθεματικότητα στα Αναλυτικά Προγράμματα Σπουδών: Παραδείγματα από την ευρωπαϊκή εμπειρία και πρακτική. *Επιθεώρηση Εκπαιδευτικών Θεμάτων*. Παιδαγωγικό Ινστιτούτο, 7, 52-65.

-Κούσουλας, Φ. (2004). *Σχεδιασμοί και εφαρμογή διαθεματικής διδασκαλίας*. Αθήνα: Γρηγόρης.

-Maingain, A. & Dufour. B. (2003). *Διδακτικές Προσεγγίσεις της Διαθεματικότητας*. Αθήνα: Πατάκης.

-Ματσαγγούρας, Η. (2006). *Η Διαθεματικότητα στη Σχολική Γνώση. Εννοιοκεντρική Αναπλαισίωση και Σχέδια Εργασίας*. Αθήνα: Γρηγόρης.

-Mathison, S. & Freeman, M. (1997). The Logic of Interdisciplinary Studies. *ERIC Document, ED418434*.

-Τσαγκαρλή-&Διαμάντη, Ε. (2008). *Διαθεματικές Διεπιστημονικές Διδασκαλίες*. Θεσσαλονίκη: Αφοί Κυριακίδη.

-Tchudi, S. & Lafer, S. (1996). *The Interdisciplinary Teacher's Handbook*. Portsmouth, NH: Hainemann.

-Wineburg, S, & Grossman, P. (2000). *Interdisciplinary Curriculum: Challenges to Implementation.* New York: Teachers College Press.

πλαισίωση των γλωσσοδιδακτικών στόχων: (ο μαθητής) «…*αντιλαμβάνεται μέσα από κατάλληλα παραδείγματα ότι οι ονοματικές προτάσεις αντιστοιχούν στον ονοματικό όρο…μέσα από επιλεγμένα κείμενα, εξοικειώνεται με τα διάφορα είδη επιρρηματικών προτάσεων…. (Λογοτεχνία, Αρχαία Ελληνική Γραμματεία, Ιστορία, Θρησκευτικά, Πολιτική και Κοινωνική Αγωγή κ.τ.λ.)*» (Γ΄ Γυμνασίου, 2η ενότητα: Ονοματικές προτάσεις - Κριτική αποτίμηση θεμάτων, σ. 58).
«*Ανιχνεύει σε κείμενα λογοτεχνικά, δοκιμιακά, θεατρικά, επιστημονικά και σε άλλα συναφή τις ευθείες και πλάγιες ερωτήσεις… (Λογοτεχνία, Αρχαία Ελληνική Γραμματεία, Αισθητική Αγωγή, Ξένες Γλώσσες κ.α.)*» (Γ΄ Γυμνασίου, 3η Ενότητα: Ευθείες και πλάγιες ερωτήσεις, Κυριολεξία και μεταφορά, σ. 58).

«*Παρατηρεί και σχολιάζει φαινόμενα αστιξίας ή επιλεκτικής στίξης σε διάφορα λογοτεχνικά κείμενα (π.χ. υπερρεαλιστική ποίηση)*» (Γ΄ Γυμνασίου, 8η ενότητα: Μόρια, Στίξη, Περίληψη, 60).

Στα προτεινόμενα διαθεματικά σχέδια εργασίας η λογοτεχνία αναφέρεται ως γνωστικός χώρος προέκτασης στα 4 από τα 5 θέματα, επιλογή που επιβεβαιώνει τη συσχέτιση του γλωσσικού μαθήματος με τη λογοτεχνία στο πλαίσιο της σύγχρονης διαθεματικής - διεπιστημονικής προσέγγισης της γνώσης, η οποία επιτρέπει την πολύπλευρη διερεύνηση και μελέτη ενός θέματος με τη συμμετοχή και τον συντονισμό πολλών γνωστικών αντικειμένων. Συγκεκριμένα:

Θρύλοι και παραδόσεις της περιοχής μας
Οι μαθητές, χωρισμένοι σε ομάδες, απομαγνητοφωνούν μαρτυρίες μεγαλυτέρων σχετικά με τη λαογραφική παράδοση του τόπου τους, καταγράφουν τα έθιμα που έχουν διασωθεί στον τόπο τους μέχρι σήμερα, ανιχνεύουν σε βιβλία ή στο Διαδίκτυο παραλλαγές των εθίμων του τόπου τους. <u>*Θεμελιώδεις διαθεματικές έννοιες:*</u> *Επικοινωνία, Κώδικας, Πολιτισμός, Άτομο-κοινωνία, Αλληλεπίδραση κ.λπ.* **Προεκτάσεις** *στην Ιστορία,* **Λογοτεχνία,** *Γεωγραφία, Πληροφορική* (σ. 61)
Περιγράφοντας ένα ιστορικό γεγονός
Ομαδικές εργασίες με θέμα ένα σημαντικό ιστορικό γεγονός (π.χ. 28η Οκτωβρίου 1940, η Εξέγερση του Πολυτεχνείου κ.λπ.). Μελέτη της περιγραφής των γεγονότων από αποκόμματα του Τύπου της εποχής, ηχητικών ντοκουμέντων, μουσικών συνθέσεων και τραγουδιών, αποσπασμάτων λογοτεχνικών έργων. Σύνθεση των εργασιών, ανακοινώσεις και συζήτηση. <u>*Θεμελιώδεις διαθεματικές έννοιες:*</u> *Επικοινωνία, Κώδικας, Πολιτισμός, Άτομο-κοινωνία, Σύγκρουση κ.λπ.* **Προεκτάσεις** *στην Ιστορία,* **Λογοτεχνία***, Μουσική, Γεωγραφία (σ. 61)*
Η γλώσσα στις διάφορες επιστήμες
Συγκέντρωση ειδικού λεξιλογίου μέσα από διάφορα κείμενα με ορολογία διαφορετικών επιστημών. Οι μαθητές χωρισμένοι σε ομάδες καταγράφουν το ειδικό λεξιλόγιο από έναν πολιτικό λόγο, από μία επιστημονική ανακοίνωση, από ένα δελτίο ειδήσεων, από μια νεανική ιστοσελίδα κ.λπ. και κάνουν συγκρίσεις. <u>*Θεμελιώδεις διαθεματικές έννοιες:*</u> *Επικοινωνία, Κώδικας, Πολιτισμός, Επιστήμη, Τέχνη, Τεχνολογία κ.λπ.* **Προεκτάσεις** *στη* **Λογοτεχνία,** *τα Μαθηματικά, τις Φυσικές Επιστήμες, την Αισθητική αγωγή κ.λπ.*
Ο άνθρωπος και η θάλασσα

> *Οι μαθητές χωρισμένοι σε ομάδες:*
> *- Περιγράφουν τη γεωγραφική σχέση του τόπου τους με τη θάλασσα (σύνορα, είδος θάλασσας, έκταση ακτών κτλ.),*
> *- Μελετούν τη σύσταση του υδάτινου στοιχείου της θάλασσας (ρύπανση της θάλασσας, μετεωρολογικά φαινόμενα κτλ.),*
> *- Αναζητούν το ρόλο της θάλασσας στην ποιότητα ζωής των ανθρώπων (αισθητική απόλαυση, εικαστικές απεικονίσεις, μουσική έκφραση, στοιχείο πολιτισμού),*
> *- Μελετούν λεξιλόγιο που συνδέεται με τη θάλασσα, <u>ποίηση-πεζογραφία</u>, <u>π.χ. Ν. Καββαδίας</u> <u>- Α. Καρκαβίτσας</u> κτλ.,*
> *- Εξετάζουν τη θάλασσα ως χώρο εμπορίου και ναυτιλίας από την αρχαιότητα έως σήμερα, ως πεδίο οικονομικού και πολιτικού ανταγωνισμού, π.χ. αποικίες, πολεμικές συγκρούσεις κτ.λ. μέσα από τη μελέτη πηγών. <u>Θεμελιώδεις διαθεματικές έννοιες</u>: Επικοινωνία, Πολιτισμός, Επιστήμη, Τέχνη, Τεχνολογία κ.λπ. **Προεκτάσεις** στη **Λογοτεχνία**, τη Γεωγραφία, τις Φυσικές Επιστήμες, την Αισθητική αγωγή κ.λπ.*

Το (Νέο) Πρόγραμμα Σπουδών για τη Νεοελληνική γλώσσα και τη Λογοτεχνία στο Γυμνάσιο (Νέο Σχολείο. Αθήνα: 2011)

Το κείμενο του Νέου Προγράμματος για τη διδασκαλία της Νεοελληνικής Γλώσσας στο Γυμνάσιο (2011) είναι εναρμονισμένο ως προς την ορολογία με τις σύγχρονες θέσεις της κειμενογλωσσολογίας και της γλωσσοδιδακτικής. Σχετικά με τα κείμενα που αξιοποιούνται στη γλωσσική διδασκαλία αναφέρεται χαρακτηριστικά: *Στον τομέα των κειμένων περιλαμβάνεται σωρεία κειμένων χρηστικών και λογοτεχνικών, τα οποία ανήκουν σε διάφορα κειμενικά είδη και περιλαμβάνουν διάφορους κειμενικούς τύπους και γλωσσικές λειτουργίες …διηγήματα …μυθιστορήματα …παραμύθια …τραγούδια.* (σ. 12). Οι αναφορές γίνονται συγκεκριμένες στη λεπτομερή παρουσίαση των θεματικών ενοτήτων και της ειδολογικής ταυτότητας των κειμένων τους, π.χ. *Ο Άνθρωπος και η Ταυτότητά του, κειμενικό είδος - αυτοπαρουσίαση, συνέντευξη, βιογραφικό σημείωμα, αυτοβιογραφικό κείμενο (π.χ. στη λογοτεχνία)* (σ. 14).

Οδηγίες για τη διδασκαλία της ελληνικής γλώσσας στη Γ΄ Γυμνασίου
Στο κείμενο των Οδηγιών για τη διδασκαλία της Νεοελληνικής γλώσσας στη Γ΄ Γυμνασίου (Κατσαρού, Μαγγανά, Σκιά, Τσέλιου, Νικόπουλος, 2006), είναι εμφανής ο κειμενοκεντρικός προσανατολισμός, καθώς, όπως ρητά αναφέρεται: «…προσπαθήσαμε να περιλάβουμε κείμενα διαφόρων ειδών και γλωσσικών επιπέδων …που φιλοδοξούν να βοηθήσουν τους μαθητές να συνειδητοποιούν το πλήθος των γλωσσικών επιλογών και να τους αποκαλύψουν τα διαφορετικά νοήματα που μπορούν να προκύψουν από τις διαφορετικές επιλογές» (σ. 7). Οι μαθητές της Γ΄ Γυμνασίου προσδοκάται να γίνουν «κοινωνοί ορισμένων προβληματισμών που χαρακτηρίζουν τις σύγχρονες κοινωνίες, ώστε να έρθουν σε επικοινωνία με τα κείμενα» (σ. 9). Άλλωστε, «…στο σχολείο μαθαίνουν να χειρίζονται πραγματικότητες βασισμένες σε κείμενα» (Barton, 2009: 236).
Όσον αφορά την επιλογή των λογοτεχνικών κειμένων που εμπεριέχονται στο σχολικό εγχειρίδιο, αυτή είναι εμφανώς περιορισμένη με σημείο αναφοράς τον συνολικό αριθμό των κειμένων. Οι υπεύθυνοι των περιεχομένων του βιβλίου, ακολουθώντας το πλαίσιο αρχών του θεσμικού κειμένου των ΔΕΠΠΣ-ΑΠΣ, επιδίωξαν «…να καλυφθεί όσο το δυνατόν μεγαλύτερο φάσμα κειμενικών ειδών και επιπέδων λόγου. Για το λόγο αυτό π.χ. αποφύγαμε την υπερφόρτωση του εγχειριδίου με λογοτεχνικά κείμενα και ενισχύσαμε συνειδητά το «μερίδιο»

των πολυτροπικών κειμένων» (σ. 12). Η αξιοποίηση των κειμένων ορίζεται από την επισήμανση: «τα εισαγωγικά κείμενα κάθε ενότητας αξιοποιούνται ως προς το περιεχόμενο και για τη μελέτη των εξεταζόμενων γλωσσικών φαινομένων», (σ.18), η οποία βρίσκεται σε άμεση συνάφεια με τη σκοποθεσία του μαθήματος: «Σκοπός της γλωσσικής διδασκαλίας είναι να κατακτήσουν οι μαθητές το βασικό όργανο επικοινωνίας της γλωσσικής τους κοινότητας, ώστε να αναπτυχθούν διανοητικά και συναισθηματικά…. Να είναι σε θέση να αναγνωρίζουν τα δομικά και γραμματικά στοιχεία της νεοελληνικής γλώσσας στον προτασιακό και κειμενικό λόγο, ώστε να κατανοούν και να αιτιολογούν και τις τυχόν παρεκκλίσεις ή ανατροπές των παραπάνω στοιχείων….» (ΔΕΠΠΣ-ΑΠΣ, 2003: 1).

Ως κριτήρια επιλογής των κειμένων ορίζονται: η καταλληλότητά τους για την περιγραφή των γραμματικών φαινομένων, όπως ορίζονται για την κάθε ενότητα από το Αναλυτικό Πρόγραμμα, η σύντομη έκτασή τους, το ενδιαφέρον θεματικό περιεχόμενο, η δυνατότητα να αξιοποιηθούν προς την κατεύθυνση της ικανοποίησης στόχων ανάπτυξης της κριτικής σκέψης των μαθητών. Θεματικές ενότητες όπως η ισότητα και ο σεβασμός στη διαφορετικότητα (Ενότητα 3η), η ειρήνη και ο πόλεμος (Ενότητα 5η), η κοινωνική αλληλεγγύη και ο εθελοντισμός (Ενότητα 6η) μπορούν να λειτουργήσουν ως κινητήριοι μοχλοί για στοχασμούς, επαναπροσδιορισμούς και προβληματισμούς στο πλαίσιο εποικοδομητικών συζητήσεων και διαλόγου στο γλωσσικό μάθημα.

Διαπιστώσεις-κριτική αποτίμηση

Όσον αφορά τα κείμενα λογοτεχνίας, επισημαίνουμε ότι οι μεθοδολογικές και διδακτικές κατευθύνσεις που δίνονται στις οδηγίες για τον εκπαιδευτικό αξιοποιούν στοιχεία από τη θεωρία της Λογοτεχνίας περί πολλαπλών αναγνώσεων και ερμηνειών, γιατί *«ένας αναγνώστης θα διαβάσει διαφορετικά κείμενα με διαφορετικούς τρόπους. Ένα κείμενο θα διαβαστεί με διαφορετικούς τρόπους από διαφορετικούς αναγνώστες. Ένας αναγνώστης θα διαβάσει το ίδιο κείμενο διαφορετικά σε διαφορετικές συνθήκες, καθώς η διάθεσή του, ο σκοπός του και η γνώση του αλλάζουν»* (Hatt, 1976: 71). Επομένως, *«ο διδάσκων δεν πρέπει να αποθαρρύνει τις διαφορετικές αναγνώσεις των μαθητών…οφείλει να ελέγχει την τάση τους για διατύπωση αυθαίρετων απόψεων που δεν στηρίζονται σε στοιχεία των κειμένων και να τους εξοπλίζει με τα απαραίτητα μέσα για την ερμηνεία τους, ώστε να περάσουν από το αρχικό επίπεδο κατανόησης, σε ένα ανώτερο επίπεδο και κριτικότερο…να ενεργοποιεί το ενδιαφέρον τους σε ό,τι αφορά τα γλωσσικά φαινόμενα και τα θέματα που θίγονται στα κείμενα κάθε ενότητας»*, αναφέρεται χαρακτηριστικά στον εκπαιδευτικό οδηγό» (σελ. 14).

Στις συγκεκριμένες αναφορές διατυπώνονται μεθοδοδολογικές αρχές σύμφωνα με τις οποίες τα λογοτεχνικά κείμενα λειτουργούν διδακτικά τόσο για την κατάκτηση γλωσσικών δεξιοτήτων όσο και για την ανάπτυξη προβληματισμού, κριτικής σκέψης και διαπολιτισμικού διαλόγου στο πλαίσιο της ευρύτερης πλέον διάστασης του γραμματισμού με κριτικό και πολιτισμικό περιεχόμενο. Άλλωστε, σύμφωνα με τους Luke & Freebody (1997), ο κριτικός γραμματισμός είναι μια κοινωνική πρακτική που ωθεί τους αναγνώστες να συμπεριφέρονται ως παραβάτες κωδίκων (codes breakers), δημιουργοί ερμηνειών (meaning makers), κριτές κειμένων (text critics) μέσα από δραστηριότητες ανάγνωσης και γραφής. Ιδιαίτερη σημασία έχει η τελευταία ιδιότητα του αναγνώστη, καθώς *«αναλύει κριτικά το κείμενο και μαθαίνει να κοιτάει πίσω από τις λέξεις στη σελίδα, ώστε να συμπεράνει πώς 'δουλεύει' το κείμενο γλωσσικά (linguistically), πολιτικά (politically), πολιτισμικά (culturally) και κοινωνικά (socially)* (Jewett &

Smith, 2003: 69). «*Κριτική, άλλωστε, σημαίνει να ανακαλύπτουμε πώς λειτουργεί κάτι, να μην παίρνουμε τα πράγματα δεδομένα, αλλά να κοιτάμε κάτω από την επιφάνειά τους, να θέτουμε ερωτήσεις του τύπου: γιατί υπάρχει αυτό ή συμβαίνει αυτό; ποιος ο σκοπός του;, πώς λειτουργεί;*» (Ντίνας, 2013: 289). Όλα αυτά σημαίνουν ότι ο κριτικός γραμματισμός, με μια παιδαγωγική εννοιολογική θεώρηση, είναι «*ένα πρόγραμμα με το οποίο οργανώνουμε και διδάσκουμε γλώσσα με στόχο να συνδέσουμε το πώς μέσα από τη γλώσσα μεταδίδουμε ή αμφισβητούμε νοήματα που κυριαρχούν στο ευρύτερο κοινωνικό πλαίσιο*» (Χατζησαββίδης, Κωστούλη & Τσιπλάκου, 2011)

Για τους σκοπούς του κριτικού γραμματισμού, το κείμενο ορίζεται ως «*όχημα μέσω του οποίου τα άτομα επικοινωνούν μεταξύ τους χρησιμοποιώντας κώδικες και συμβάσεις της κοινωνίας*» (Robinson & Robinson, 2003: 3). Κατά συνέπεια, τα τραγούδια, τα μυθιστορήματα, τα διηγήματα, τα ποιήματα, οι συζητήσεις, οι φωτογραφίες, οι ταινίες θα μπορούσαν να θεωρηθούν κειμενικά είδη, τα οποία περιέχουν μορφές και έννοιες που απορρέουν και εγγράφουν τις λειτουργίες, τους σκοπούς και τα νοήματα των κοινωνικών περιστάσεων (Αραβανή, 2011). Τα κείμενα, λοιπόν, τελούν υπό διαπραγμάτευση ως προς τη δόμηση και την κατανόησή τους σε ένα διαφορετικό, κάθε φορά, πλαίσιο κοινωνικών συναλλαγών και έχουν ρευστές/διαμορφούμενες ιδιότητες, ανάλογες με τις ισχύουσες κοινωνικές και πολιτικές συνθήκες. Έτσι, αντιμετωπίζονται ως μεταβλητές και, παράλληλα, ως μη ουδέτερες ιδεολογικά οντότητες, ως εργαλεία αντίστασης κατά των πάγιων στοιχείων που αφορούν στην κοινωνία, αλλά και επίτευξης νέων δεδομένων (Cervetti, Pardales & Damico, 2001).

Αυτό είναι ιδιαίτερα σημαντικό στην εκπαιδευτική πραγματικότητα, καθώς σύμφωνα και με τη διεθνή βιβλιογραφία, η ενασχόληση με τα λογοτεχνικά κείμενα παρέχει τη δυνατότητα ενεργητικής συμμετοχής των μαθητών στη διαδικασία της γνώσης, ως κοινότητας αναγνωστών και ερμηνευτών και διευρύνει τον ορίζοντα των εμπειριών τους μέσω των πολλαπλών οπτικών (multiple perspectives) στην επεξεργασία των κειμένων, τα οποία πρέπει να είναι ανοικτά σε πολλές ερμηνείες (Appleman, 2000). Επίσης, οξύνει το γλωσσικό αισθητήριο και το αισθητικό τους κριτήριο, αναπτύσσει την κριτική τους ικανότητα μέσα από πεδία στοχασμού και κριτικού προβληματισμού (Schmidt & Pailliotet, 2001), τους ενθαρρύνει να σκέφτονται κριτικά (Mathis, 2006) και να συζητούν για τα κοινωνικά θέματα, τις αξίες και τους θεσμούς που επηρεάζουν την καθημερινή τους ζωή με αναστοχαστικό τρόπο (Meller, Richardson & Hatch, 2009· Knickerbocker & Rycik, 2006). Τους καθιστά, συνεπώς, ικανούς να αντιλαμβάνονται την πραγματικότητα στις πολυειδείς όψεις και εκδοχές της και να παίρνουν κριτική θέση απέναντι σε ζητήματα της ατομικής και της κοινωνικής ζωής (Collins & Blot, 2003). Αυτό συνάδει και με τη σκοποθεσία του μαθήματος, όπου μεταξύ άλλων αναφέρεται πως «*οι μαθητές μέσα από τη διδασκαλία του γλωσσικού μαθήματος πρέπει να συνειδητοποιήσουν τη σημασία του λόγου για τη συμμετοχή στην κοινωνική ζωή, ώστε είτε ως πομποί είτε ως δέκτες του λόγου να μετέχουν στα κοινά ως ελεύθεροι δημοκρατικοί πολίτες με κριτική και υπεύθυνη στάση*» (Δ.Ε.Π.Π.Σ. - Α.Π.Σ. 2003: 1).

Η αναδιαπραγμάτευση, τέλος, των θεμάτων που καλύπτουν τα κείμενα μέσα από τις δραστηριότητες παραγωγής λόγου (προφορικού & γραπτού) και η εξαγωγή ανάλογων συμπερασμάτων ωθούν τον μαθητή να σκέφτεται σχετικά με τη γλώσσα και να την αξιοποιεί αποτελεσματικότερα, όπως αναφέρεται στις μεθοδολογικές- διδακτικές κατευθύνσεις του εκπαιδευτικού οδηγού. Άλλωστε είναι γεγονός ότι «ο σκοπός του γλωσσικού μαθήματος δεν είναι μόνο η παροχή ποσότητας γραμματικών γνώσεων, αλλά η ανάπτυξη ποιοτικών διαδικασιών (Stenhouse, 2003: 113-128).

Η χρηση των Λογοτεχνικων Κειμενων στο Σχολικο Εγχειριδιο της Νεοελληνικης Γλωσσας της Γ´ Γυμνασιου

Σκοπός και Ειδικότεροι Στόχοι της Έρευνας

Στα θεσμικά κείμενα, όπως φάνηκε από τη μελέτη των ΔΕΠΠΣ- ΑΠΣ, του Νέου Προγράμματος Σπουδών και των Εκπαιδευτικών Οδηγιών, η λογοτεχνία αναφέρεται είτε ρητά, είτε συνυποδηλωτικά. Το σχολικό εγχειρίδιο, όμως, είναι αυτό που «*υλοποιεί τις επιταγές του Αναλυτικού και Ωρολόγιου Προγράμματος*» (Barnes, 1982: 119) και καθίσταται όργανο και μέσο για να πραγματωθούν οι προδιαγραφές τους και να ελεγχθούν οι αναγκαίες γενικές γνώσεις και οι απαραίτητες αξίες που διδάσκονται/επικοινωνούνται στους μαθητές (Καψάλης & Χαραλάμπους, 2008, Φλουρής, 1983). «*Η προβληματική, επομένως, που αφορά στη λειτουργικότητα και την ποιότητα του διδακτικού βιβλίου παραπέμπει σε ερευνητικές δυνατότητες για κατανόηση του εκπαιδευτικού συστήματος*» (Σπανός & Μιχάλης, 2012: 106-107).

Η παρούσα εργασία εστιάζει στη μελέτη του σχολικού εγχειριδίου της Γλώσσας της Γ´ Γυμνασίου και στην ανίχνευση του ρόλου που διαδραματίζουν τα εμπεριεχόμενα λογοτεχνικά κείμενα ως προς την κατάκτηση/ανάπτυξη του γλωσσικού γραμματισμού με σημείο αναφοράς τη σύνδεσή τους και τον βαθμό συνάφειας με τη στοχοθεσία του μαθήματος της Γλώσσας (ΔΕΠΠΣ- ΑΠΣ- Νέο Πρόγραμμα Σπουδών και Εκπαιδευτικές Οδηγίες).

Ειδικότεροι στόχοι: να εντοπιστούν και να καταγραφούν

⇨ πόσα είναι τα λογοτεχνικά κείμενα στο σχολικό εγχειρίδιο

⇨ σε ποιο ειδικότερο λογοτεχνικό είδος ταξινομούνται (πεζό, ποίημα, παραμύθι, μυθιστόρημα, διήγημα)

⇨ ποιες γλωσσικές ανάγκες εξυπηρετούν και σε ποιο βαθμό και

⇨ πώς αξιοποιούνται διδακτικά μέσω των εργασιών- δραστηριοτήτων που τα ακολουθούν και πώς αυτές συνδέονται με το περιεχόμενο, τις διδακτικές επιλογές και τη σκοποθεσία- στοχοθεσία του μαθήματος, χρησιμοποιώντας στοιχεία της μεθόδου της Γεωμετρικής Διδακτικής Ανάλυσης.

Μεθοδολογία Έρευνας

Για την ειδολογική ταξινόμηση των λογοτεχνικών κειμένων ακολουθήθηκε επαγωγική πορεία. Το κάθε κείμενο ταυτοποιήθηκε με βάση τα συνοδευτικά σχόλια στο βιβλίο οδηγιών προς τον εκπαιδευτικό -τα σχόλια αυτά έχουν και θέση προοργανωτή της διδασκαλίας-, τις αυτοαναφορικές πληροφορίες των συγγραφέων, τα εκδοτικά σημειώματα, καθώς και απόψεις που διατυπώθηκαν στο πλαίσιο της λογοτεχνικής κριτικής. Στη συνέχεια ομαδοποιήθηκαν και οδήγησαν στη διατύπωση συμπερασματικών διατυπώσεων σχετικά με την κατά θεματική ενότητα και ποσόστωση εμφάνισή τους.

Για τη σύνδεση κειμένων και διδακτικών στόχων, δηλαδή για την ανάλυση της διδακτικής διάστασης των λογοτεχνικών κειμένων, χρησιμοποιήθηκαν στοιχεία μιας νέας μεθόδου έρευνας των σχολικών εγχειριδίων. Πρόκειται για τη μέθοδο της Γεωμετρικής Διδακτικής Ανάλυσης[5] (Geometric Didactic Analysis - Ge.Di.An.), η οποία προέκυψε ως εξέλιξη

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[5] Τη μέθοδο παρουσίασαν ως ερευνητικό αποτέλεσμα των επιστημονικών τους αναζητήσεων οι Νικόλαος Κουτσουπιάς, Καθηγητής του ΠαΜακ και Αθανάσιος Στογιαννίδης, Επίκουρος Καθηγητής του ΑΠΘ. Επειδή η «οριστικοποίηση» των μεθοδολογικών εργαλείων όσον αφορά την οπτικοποίηση των ποσοτικών ευρημάτων βρίσκεται σε εξέλιξη, επιλέξαμε να

της Ανάλυσης Περιεχομένου (Content Analysis) με στόχο τη αντιστοίχιση των ευρημάτων-αναφορών στις γραπτές πηγές (στην περίπτωση της εργασίας αυτής των λογοτεχνικών κειμένων) με τις συνοδευτικές εργασίες-δραστηριότητες οι οποίες συνδέονται με συγκεκριμένους στόχους και αποτελούν τα ερευνητικά δεδομένα. Κατά τους εισηγητές της «*Πρόκειται για ένα πρωτότυπο επιστημονικό εργαλείο το οποίο βασίζεται, αφενός μεν στον επιμέρους κλάδο της Στατιστικής, ο οποίος ακούει στο όνομα «Πολυμεταβλητή Στατιστική Ανάλυση» (Παπαδημητρίου, 2007[6])· αφετέρου, σε γνωστές ταξινομίες που αναπτύχθηκαν μέσα στον χώρο της επιστήμης της Διδακτικής (Στογιαννίδης, 2014: 102-116[7]). Επισημαίνουμε ακόμη, ότι με τον όρο «διδακτική ανάλυση» αναφερόμαστε στην ανάλυση του τρόπου με τον οποίον ο δάσκαλος προσπαθεί να φέρει τους μαθητές σε συνάντηση με το προς μάθηση υλικό, δηλ. ο τρόπος με τον οποίον οικοδομείται η μεθοδολογία της διδασκαλίας*» (Κουτσουπιάς, Στογιαννίδης, 2015: 1).

Ακολουθήσαμε τα τρία πρώτα στάδια της μεθόδου, ως εξής:

1ο στάδιο: *Προσδιορισμός των αντικειμένων που θα καταγραφούν ως δεδομένα.* Εντοπίστηκαν οι ερωτήσεις και οι προτεινόμενες εργασίες-δραστηριότητες οι οποίες συνοδεύουν τα λογοτεχνικά κείμενα του σχολικού εγχειριδίου Νεοελληνικής Γλώσσας της Γ΄ Γυμνασίου. Απαριθμήθηκαν, με δεδομένο ότι κάθε ερώτηση/εργασία/δραστηριότητα ορίστηκε ως δομική μονάδα καταγραφής και ως μονάδα ανάλυσης.

2ο στάδιο: *Προσδιορισμός των μεταβλητών και των κλάσεών τους.* Επιλέχτηκαν οι μεταβλητές και οι κλάσεις[8], με βάση τις οποίες επιχειρήθηκε η διδακτική ανάλυση.

3ο στάδιο: *Ταξινόμηση των αντικειμένων και συγκρότηση ενός πίνακα δεδομένων.* Στο στάδιο αυτό κωδικογραφήθηκαν τα δεδομένα. Ταξινομήθηκε άπαξ κάθε ερώτηση/εργασία /δραστηριότητα (σε μία μόνο κλάση για κάθε μεταβλητή)[9]

χρησιμοποιήσουν τα πρώτα στάδια, όπως θα περιγραφούν στο κείμενο, τα οποία εφαρμόστηκαν σε τρεις θεματικές ενότητες του εγχειριδίου.

[6] Παπαδημητρίου, Γ. (2007). *Η Ανάλυση Δεδομένων. Παραγοντική ανάλυση αντιστοιχιών. Ιεραρχική ταξινόμηση και άλλες μέθοδοι.* Αθήνα: Τυπωθήτω.

[7] Στογιαννίδης, Α. (2014). *Η Διδακτική Ανάλυση στα Σχολικά Εγχειρίδια του Μαθήματος των Θρησκευτικών. Εμπειρική έρευνα με εφαρμογή της Γεωμετρικής Διδακτικής Ανάλυσης (Ge.Di.An.).* Θεσσαλονίκη: Δέσποινα Κυριακίδη.

[8] Οι όροι «μεταβλητές» και «κλάσεις» χρησιμοποιούνται κατ᾽ αναλογία των όρων «κατηγορίες» και «υποκατηγορίες» της Ανάλυσης Περιεχομένου (βλ. Στογιαννίδης, 2014).

[9] Τα επόμενα στάδια είναι: *4ο στάδιο: Εισαγωγή των δεδομένων στον υπολογιστή με χρήση λογισμικού. Εξαγωγή των αποτελεσμάτων*

5ο στάδιο: Εξαγωγή των αποτελεσμάτων β΄: εφαρμογή της Παραγοντικής Ανάλυσης των Αντιστοιχιών. Παραγοντικοί Άξονες και/ή Επίπεδο/Επίπεδα Παραγοντικών Αξόνων.

6ο στάδιο: Εξαγωγή των αποτελεσμάτων γ΄: εφαρμογή της Ταξινόμησης κατ᾽ Αύξουσας Ιεραρχίας. Δημιουργία Δενδρογράμματος και (προαιρετικά) τοποθέτησή του πάνω στο Παραγοντικό Επίπεδο Αξόνων (Κουτσουπιάς, Στογιαννίδης: 2014).

Αποτελέσματα της έρευνας
Τα λογοτεχνικά κείμενα. Ειδολογική ταξινόμηση

Πίνακας 1. Κατανομή των λογοτεχνικών κειμένων ως προς τις ειδολογικές κατηγορίες στις οποίες εντάσσονται

ΕΝΟΤΗΤΕΣ	ΠΟΙΗΜΑ	ΜΥΘΙΣΤΟΡΗΜΑ	ΔΙΗΓΗΜΑ	ΛΟΓΟΤΕΝΙΚΟ ΔΟΚΙΜΙΟ	ΘΕΑ-ΤΡΙΚΟ ΕΡΓΟ	ΚΟΜΙΚ	ΣΥΝΟ-ΛΟ
1η Η Ελλάδα στον κόσμο	2			1			3
2η Γλώσσα-Γλώσσες και Πολιτισμοί του Κόσμου		1		1			2
3η Είμαστε όλοι ίδιοι, είμαστε όλοι διαφορετικοί					1	1	2
4η Ενωμένη Ευρώπη & Ευρωπαίοι πολίτες		1		1			2
5η Ειρήνη- Πόλεμος	1	1					2
6η Ενεργοί πολίτες για την υπεράσπιση οικουμενικών αξιών	1					1	2
7η Τέχνη, μια γλώσσα για όλους σε όλες τις εποχές				2			2
8η Μπροστά στο μέλλον	2	2	1	1			6
ΣΥΝΟΛΟ	6	5	1	6	1	2	21

Με βάση τα ποσοτικά ευρήματα, τα λογοτεχνικά κείμενα που καταγράφτηκαν είναι συνολικά 21 και αποτελούν το 25,3% του συνόλου των 83 κειμένων του σχολικού εγχειριδίου (Πίνακας 1). Όπως καταδεικνύεται στον ίδιο πίνακα, τα 21 λογοτεχνικά κείμενα περιλαμβάνουν μια ευρεία γκάμα κειμενικών τύπων (μυθιστόρημα, διήγημα, ποίημα, τραγούδι, θεατρικό κείμενο) με κυρίαρχο κειμενικό τύπο - είδος το ποίημα και δεύτερο, ως προς την επιλογή, το λογοτεχνικό δοκίμιο. Η κατανομή των λογοτεχνικών κειμένων ανά διδακτική ενότητα παρουσιάζει μια ισορροπία με απόκλιση στην 8η, η οποία αναφέρεται ως προς το περιεχόμενο στο μέλλον των μαθητών και ως προς τον συντακτικό-μορφολογικό άξονα στα σχήματα λόγου και τα σημεία στίξης, περιεχόμενο που δικαιολογεί τα 6 λογοτεχνικά κείμενα σε σύγκριση με τα 2 ή 3 των υπόλοιπων ενοτήτων.

Τα λογοτεχνικά κείμενα. Κατηγορίες ερωτήσεων/εργασιών/δραστηριοτήτων που τα συνοδεύουν

Πίνακας 2. Αντιστοίχηση των λογοτεχνικών κειμένων με τις κατηγορίες ερωτήσεων/εργασιών/δραστηριοτήτων που τα συνοδεύουν

ΕΝΟΤΗΤΕΣ	ΚΑΤΑΝΟΗΣΗΣ	ΑΚΟΥΩ ΚΑΙ ΜΙΛΩ	ΔΙΑΒΑΖΩ ΚΑΙ ΓΡΑΦΩ	ΓΡΑΜΜΑΤΙΚΗ-ΣΥΝΤΑΚΤΙΚΟ-ΜΟΡΦΟΛΟΓΙΑ	ΣΥΝΟΛΟ
1η Η Ελλάδα στον κόσμο	1	8	6	1	16
2η Γλώσσα- Γλώσσες και Πολιτισμοί του Κόσμου	1	3	5		9
3η Είμαστε όλοι ίδιοι, είμαστε όλοι διαφορετικοί		3	3		6
4η Ενωμένη Ευρώπη & Ευρωπαίοι πολίτες	2	8	6	1	17
5η Ειρήνη- Πόλεμος		11	1	1	13
6η Ενεργοί πολίτες για την υπεράσπιση οικουμενικών αξιών	3	4	1		8
7η Τέχνη, μια γλώσσα για όλους σε όλες τις εποχές	4	4			8
8η Μπροστά στο μέλλον	4	15	2	1	22
ΣΥΝΟΛΟ	15	56	24	4	99

Ενδιαφέρον παρουσιάζουν τα ευρήματα του Πίνακα 2, καθώς οι 99 ερωτήσεις - εργασίες που αφορούν τα λογοτεχνικά κείμενα κατανέμονται και στις τρεις κατηγορίες:

Α) Κατανόησης (15), Β) Ακούω & Μιλώ (56), Γ) Διαβάζω & Γράφω (24). Αισθητή υπεροχή παρατηρούμε ότι έχουν αυτές που καταγράφτηκαν στη δεύτερη κατηγορία. Ο αριθμός των εργασιών που εντάσσονται στην κατηγορία *Γραμματική (Μαθαίνω- Διαπιστώνω)* είναι πολύ μικρός (μόλις 4). Πρόκειται για επιλογή η οποία επιτρέπει τη διατύπωση της άποψης ότι η αξιοποίηση της λογοτεχνίας δεν επικεντρώνεται στην εκμάθηση των γραμματικών και των συντακτικών φαινομένων στο πλαίσιο της γλωσσικής διδασκαλίας, τουλάχιστον όσον αφορά στις προθέσεις των συγγραφέων.

Σχετικά με τις Διαθεματικές Δραστηριότητες, η έρευνα έδειξε ότι οι 3 από τις 8 που εντάσσονται στο σχολικό εγχειρίδιο στις αντίστοιχες ενότητες συνδέουν το γλωσσικό μάθημα με τη λογοτεχνία. Πρόκειται για αξιοσημείωτη αναλογία. Συγκεκριμένα, στην 1η Ενότητα αναφέρεται χαρακτηριστικά: «…..Χωριστείτε σε ομάδες. Η κάθε ομάδα μπορεί να αναλάβει έναν τομέα της περιοχής (φυσικό τοπίο, μνημεία, ιστορία, εξέχουσες προσωπικότητες, παραδόσεις, κουζίνα, ψυχαγωγία-αναψυχή- διασκέδαση, αγορές κ.τ.λ.). Χρησιμοποιήστε υλικό από βιβλία Γεωγραφίας, Ιστορίας, **Λογοτεχνίας**, τους υπάρχοντες τουριστικούς οδηγούς…» (σελ. 27). Αντίστοιχα στην 5η Ενότητα ζητείται από την τρίτη ομάδα των μαθητών «…να διερευνήσει την εξέλιξη των όπλων τον 20ό αιώνα και να συλλέξει στοιχεία για τα όπλα που χρησιμοποιήθηκαν στους πολέμους που έγιναν κατά τη διάρκειά του. Στοιχεία μπορεί να αντλήσει η ομάδα αυτή

από βιβλία Ιστορίας, ***Λογοτεχνίας****, το Διαδίκτυο, το Πολεμικό Μουσείο της Αθήνας, από τα αρχεία εφημερίδων και περιοδικών»* (σελ. 103), εναλλακτικά θα μπορούσαν οι μαθητές να χωριστούν σε ομάδες και να συλλέξουν υλικό, όπως φωτογραφίες, **λογοτεχνικά κείμενα,** τραγούδια, πίνακες ζωγραφικής ή άλλα έργα τέχνης με αντιπολεμικά μηνύματα. Αλλά και στην 7η Ενότητα η δημιουργία ανθολογίας με τραγούδια της αρεσκείας των μαθητών και η διερεύνηση της αληθινής ποιητικής αξίας των στίχων τους αποτελεί σημείο εκκίνησης για βαθύτερη ενασχόληση με την ποίηση και τη λογοτεχνία γενικότερα.

Σημαντική είναι και η διαπίστωση, όπως προκύπτει από τα ευρήματα, ότι σε κάθε ειδολογική κατηγορία λογοτεχνικών κειμένων αντιστοιχεί ποικιλότητα ασκήσεων, επιλογή η οποία επιτρέπει διατύπωση πολυεπίπεδης στοχοθεσίας. Συγκεκριμένα, εντοπίζονται δραστηριότητες που αφορούν στα εξής:

- εκμάθηση γραμματικών- συντακτικών φαινομένων,

- ταύτιση του μαθητή με τον ήρωα μέσα στο πλαίσιο αναγνωστικών- προσληπτικών κατευθύνσεων,

- δυνατότητες για λογοτεχνική πρόσληψη και διαδραστική ανάγνωση των κειμένων,

- κίνητρα για προβληματισμό, στοχασμό, διάλογο, κριτική σκέψη και τοποθέτηση των μαθητών,

- βιωματικότητα και σύνδεση των μαθητών με δικές τους εμπειρίες και βιώματα.

Ενδεικτικά παρατίθενται στη συνέχεια ορισμένες δραστηριότητες οι οποίες αναλογούν/συνοδεύουν/αντιστοιχούν σε κάθε είδος:

Α) Ερωτήσεις Κατανόησης
Ποιες είναι οι δύο φυλετικές κοινότητες στις οποίες αναφέρεται το κείμενο και ποια διαφορά υπάρχει μεταξύ τους στον τρόπο που αντιμετωπίζουν το μέλλον; (Ενότητα 8η, 135)
Ποια είναι η καλύτερη βοήθεια που μπορεί κάποιος να προσφέρει στους συνανθρώπους του σύμφωνα με τον Κινέζο ποιητή; Πιστεύετε ότι η πρότασή του έχει αξία σήμερα; Με ποιους τρόπους θα μπορούσε να εφαρμοστεί στον σύγχρονο κόσμο; (Ενότητα 6η, 107)

Β) Ερωτήσεις κατηγορίας Διαβάζω & Γράφω:
• *Αφού βρείτε τα παρακάτω αποσπάσματα μέσα στο κείμενο 1 (Γ. Θεοτοκά, Ελεύθερο Πνεύμα): «πολλές μικρές χώρες....του γείτονα», «Κάθε πόλη της Ευρώπης...με καμία άλλη στον κόσμο»...υπογραμμίστε τις αναφορικές προτάσεις προτάσεις που περιέχονται σε αυτά.... Συμπεράνετε: τι είδους είναι οι αναφορικές προτάσεις που υπογραμμίσατε; Ποιος είναι ο συντακτικός τους ρόλος; (Ενότητα 4η, 67)*
• *Βάλτε τον εαυτό σας στη θέση του παιδιού που περιδιαβαίνει τη «φριχτή πολιτεία» (Άλκη Ζέη, Ο μεγάλος περίπατος του Πέτρου). Συνεχίστε το κείμενο σε πρώτο πρόσωπο και προσθέστε δύο ακόμη παραγράφους. Μιλήστε για πράγματα που συναντάτε και που συνθέτουν την εικόνα του πολέμου και αναπολήστε τις εικόνες της ειρήνης (Ενότητα 5η, 98)*

Γ) Ερωτήσεις κατηγορίας Ακούω & Μιλώ:
• *Βρείτε στα αποσπάσματα που ακολουθούν:*
α. Τις λέξεις από τις οποίες εξαρτάται κάθε υπογραμμισμένη πρόταση
β. τον συντακτικό ρόλο κάθε υπογραμμισμένης πρότασης
«στην αχρήστευση της σκέψης βοηθούσε και το γεγονός ότι υπήρχε πολύ μικρή εκλογή στις λέξεις» (κείμενο 3, Τζώρτζ Όργουελ, 1984, Ο μεγάλος αδελφός) (Ενότητα 2η, 34)
• *Διηγηθείτε στην τάξη τα δικά σας βιώματα από τις γιορτές των Φώτων και του Αι-Γιαννιού. Πόσο διαφέρει ο τρόπος που ζείτε εσείς τις γιορτές αυτές από τον τρόπο που παρουσιάζει ο ποιητής στο κείμενό του; (Οδ. Ελύτης, Άξιον Εστί) (Ενότητα, 5, 99)*
• *Τι παρατηρείτε σε ό,τι αφορά στο κείμενο 6 (Ν. Βαγενάς, Απολογία); Αν ο ποιητής ακολουθούσε τους τυπικούς κανόνες γραμματικής, πού και ποια σημεία στίξης θα έπρεπε να προσθέσει; Γιατί κατά τη γνώμη σας δεν το έκανε; (Ενότητα 8η, 142)*

Γεωμετρική Διδακτική Ανάλυση: εφαρμογή και αποτελέσματα
Εφαρμογή της μεθόδου[10] στην Ενότητα 3: Είμαστε όλοι ίδιοι, είμαστε όλοι διαφορετικοί
Πίνακας 3: Ανάλυση της διδακτικής διάστασης των λογοτεχνικών κειμένων της 3ης Ενότητας

Α/Α	ΑΡΚ	ΘΣΕ	ΜΔΤ	ΚΜΕ	ΕΙΜ	ΕΠΜ	ΤΑΔ
1	6	2	2	1	1	1	1
2	6	2	1	1	1	1	1
3	6	2	1	1	1	1	1
4	6	2	1	1	1	2	1
5	6	2	1	1	4	4	1
6	5	2	1	1	4	4	1
7	5	2	1	1	4	4	1
8	5	3	3	1	4	4	1
9	5	3	3	1	4	4	1
10	5	3	3	1	4	4	1
11	5	3	2	3	3	4	1
12	5	3	2	3	3	4	1
13	5	3	2	3	3	4	1
14	6	3	2	1	2	1	1
15	6	3	2	1	4	4	1

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[10] Μεταβλητές και κλάσεις της έρευνας:
Α/Α: απαρίθμηση κάθε ερώτησης, εργασίας ή δραστηριότητας η οποία αποτελεί ερευνητικό δεδομένο
ΑΡΚ: Αριθμός Κειμένου. Απαριθμούνται τα λογοτεχνικά κείμενα. Διατηρείται ο αριθμός του κειμένου στο σχολικό εγχειρίδιο.
ΘΣΕ: Θέση στην Ενότητα. 1. Ερωτήσεις κατανόησης 2. Ακούω και μιλώ 3. Διαβάζω και γράφω
ΜΔΤ: Μορφή Διατύπωσης της εργασίας. 1. Ερώτηση 2. Πρόταση δραστηριότητας με χρήση προστακτικής 3. Συνδυασμός ερώτησης και πρότασης δραστηριότητας
ΚΜΕ: Κοινωνική Μορφή διδασκαλίας στην προτεινόμενη κάθε φορά εργασία. 1. Ατομική 2. Εταιρική 3. Ομαδική 4. Συζήτηση σε επίπεδο τάξης
ΕΙΜ: Είδος Γνώσης κατά τη Διδασκαλία-Μάθηση. 1. Πραγματολογική 2. Εννοιολογική 3. Διαδικαστική 4. Μεταγνωστική (η τυπολογία ακολουθεί την ταξινομία που ανέπτυξε ο B. Bloom και η ερευνητική του ομάδα, όσο και την αναθεώρησή της, όπως τα αναλυτικά αναφέρονται στο: Στογιαννίδης 2014: 108-112).
ΕΠΜ: Επίπεδο Μάθησης. 1. Συλλογή Δεδομένων 2. Οργάνωση Δεδομένων 3. Ανάλυση Δεδομένων 4. Υπέρβαση Δεδομένων
ΤΑΔ: Τρόπος Αναπαράστασης Δεδομένων 1. Υπάρχει μια μορφή αναπαράστασης των δεδομένων μεταξύ της εκφωνούμενης ερώτησης και της απάντησης 2. Στην εκφώνηση παρατίθεται πολλές αναπαραστάσεις των δεδομένων. Ο μαθητής πρέπει να κάνει συσχετίσεις προκειμένου να καταλήξει στην απάντηση 3. Ο μαθητής πρέπει να αναπαραστήσει τα δεδομένα με διαφορετικό τρόπο από αυτόν με τον οποίο αναπαρίστανται στην ερώτηση (βλ. σχετικά: Στογιαννίδης 2014: 114-115).

Πίνακας 3.1. Συνολικές καταγραφές για την ανάλυση της διδακτικής διάστασης των λογοτεχνικών κειμένων της 3ης Ενότητας

ΕΝΟΤΗΤΑ 3 ΚΑΤΑΓΡΑΦΕΣ: 15	ΑΡΚ	ΘΣΕ		ΜΔΤ			ΚΜΕ		ΕΙΜ				ΕΠΜ			ΤΑΔ
ΚΕΙΜΕΝΟ	5	2.2	6.3	2.1	3.2	3.3	5.1	3.3	3.3		5.4		8.4			8.1
ΚΕΙΜΕΝΟ	6	5.2	2.3	4.1	3.2		7.1		4.1	1.2	2.4		4.1	1.2	2.4	7.1
ΣΥΝΟΛΟ	2	7.2	6.3	6.1	6.2	3.3	12.1	3.3	4.1	1.2	3.3	7.4	4.1	1.2	10.4	15.1

ΕΠΙΣΗΜΑΝΣΗ: τα λογοτεχνικά κείμενα δεν συνοδεύονται από ερωτήσεις κατανόησης.

Η 3η ενότητα, στην οποία εμπεριέχονται ένα θεατρικό έργο και ένα κόμικς, έχει 15 καταγραφές. Παρατηρείται ισοκατανομή ερωτήσεων/ασκήσεων που εντάσσονται στις κατηγορίες ακούω και μιλώ/διαβάζω και γράφω (**ΘΣΕ**). Τα λογοτεχνικά κείμενα προσδοκάται να αξιοποιηθούν εξίσου για την κατανόηση/καλλιέργεια/παραγωγή προφορικού και γραπτού λόγου. Ως προς τη μορφή διατύπωσης των εργασιών, (**ΜΔΤ**) οριακά είναι περισσότερες όσες περιλαμβάνουν ανάληψη δράσης, στοχεύουν στην ενεργοποίηση του μαθητή και μάλιστα σε ατομικό επίπεδο (βλ. μεταβλητή **ΚΜΕ)**. Η μεταγνωστική μορφή γνώσης υπερτερεί στις καταγεγραμμένες κλάσεις της μεταβλητής **ΕΙΜ**. Ακολουθούν η διαδικαστική και η πραγματολογική και έτσι μπορούμε να συμπεράνουμε ότι ο μαθητής δεν πρέπει να σταθεί αποτελεσματικά μόνο απέναντι στο τι του κειμένου αλλά και στο γιατί και το πώς. Η διαπίστωση αυτή υποστηρίζεται και από τα δεδομένα της μεταβλητής **ΕΠΜ**, στην οποία κυριαρχεί η διαδικασία της υπέρβασης των δεδομένων από τον μαθητή. Τα ευρήματα αυτά στηρίζουν την άποψη ότι η ενότητα μέσω των λογοτεχνικών κειμένων προσεγγίζει στόχους που αφορούν τις γλωσσικές δεξιότητες στο πλαίσιο του γραμματισμού και του κριτικού γραμματισμού. Φαίνεται πάντως ότι οι συγγραφείς διατηρούν την επιφύλαξη του βαθμού ετοιμότητας του μαθητή ώστε να ανταποκριθεί με αποτελεσματικότητα στις δραστηριότητες και τη στοχοθεσία τους και δημιουργούν υποστηρικτικό σημείο αναφοράς: στο σύνολο των ερωτήσεων/εργασιών/δραστηριοτήτων υπάρχει μια μορφή αναπαράστασης των δεδομένων μεταξύ της εκφωνούμενης ερώτησης και της απάντησης ώστε να μπορούμε να μιλάμε για καθοδηγούμενη «αυτενέργεια» και κριτική σκέψη των μαθητών.

Εφαρμογή της μεθόδου στην Ενότητα 6: Ενεργοί πολίτες για την υπεράσπιση οικουμενικών αξιών

Πίνακας 4: Ανάλυση της διδακτικής διάστασης των λογοτεχνικών κειμένων της 6ης Ενότητας

Α/Α	ΑΡΕ	ΑΡΚ	ΘΣΕ	ΜΔΤ	ΚΜΕ	ΕΙΜ	ΕΠΜ	ΤΑΔ
1	6	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	6	2	1	1	1	4	4	1
3	6	2	1	1	1	4	4	1
4	6	3	1	1	1	1	3	1
5	6	2	2	1	1	1	1	1
6	6	2	2	1	1	1	1	1
7	6	2	2	1	1	1	1	1
8	6	2	2	2	1	1	1	2
9	6	2	2	2	1	1	1	1
10	6	2	2	2	1	1	1	1
11	6	2	2	2	1	1	1	1
12	6	2	2	2	1	1	1	1
13	6	3	2	2	1	1	1	1
14	6	3	2	2	1	2	2	1
15	6	2	3	2	1	3	1	1
16	6	2	3	1	1	1	1	1
17	6	2	3	1	1	1	1	1

Πίνακας 4.1. Συνολικές καταγραφές για την ανάλυση της διδακτικής διάστασης των λογοτεχνικών κειμένων της 6ης Ενότητας

ΕΝΟΤΗΤΑ 6 ΚΑΤΑΓΡΑΦΕΣ: 17	ΑΡΚ	ΘΣΕ			ΜΔΤ		ΚΜΕ	ΕΙΜ				ΕΠΜ				ΤΑΔ	
ΚΕΙΜΕΝΟ	2	3.1.	8.2	3.3	8.1	6.2	14.1	11.1	1.3	2.4		11.1	2.4			13.1	1.2
ΚΕΙΜΕΝΟ	3	1.1		2.2	1.1	2.2	3.1	2.1		1.2		1.1	1.2	1.3		3.1	
ΣΥΝΟΛΟ	2	4.1	10.2	3.3	9.1	8.2	17.1	13.1	1.2	1.3	2.4	12.1	1.2	1.3	2.4	16.1	1.2

ΕΠΙΣΗΜΑΝΣΗ: Το κείμενο 3 (κόμικς) δεν αξιοποιείται ως πολυτροπικό κείμενο αλλά με σημείο αναφοράς τη χρήση του γλωσσικού κώδικα αποκλειστικά.

Η 6η ενότητα, στην οποία εμπεριέχονται ένα ποίημα και ένα κόμικς, έχει 17 καταγραφές, οι περισσότερες από τις οποίες αφορούν το ποιητικό κείμενο. Παρατηρείται ισοκατανομή

ερωτήσεων/ασκήσεων που εντάσσονται στις κατηγορίες ερωτήσεις κατανόησης/διαβάζω και γράφω ενώ η πλειονότητα αφορά την κατηγορία ακούω και μιλώ. Τα λογοτεχνικά κείμενα προσδοκάται να αξιοποιηθούν, κυρίως, για την κατανόηση/καλλιέργεια/παραγωγή προφορικού λόγου. Ως προς τη μορφή διατύπωσης των εργασιών, διαπιστώνεται ισοκατανομή μεταξύ όσων διατυπώνονται με τη μορφή ερώτησης -επομένως επιτρέπουν ευελιξία ως προς τον τρόπο πραγμάτωσης- και όσων αποτελούν πρόταση δραστηριότητας με χρήση προστακτικής -επομένως οροθετούν το πλαίσιο υλοποίησης-. Οι καταγραφές επιφυλάσσουν μια έκπληξη: ως αποκλειστική μορφή διδασκαλίας με σημείο αναφοράς την κοινωνική της διάσταση καταγράφεται η ατομική. Πρόκειται για διαπίστωση η οποία αιτιολογεί και την επικράτηση επί των ευρημάτων της πραγματολογικής γνώσης (στήλη **ΕΙΜ**) και της συλλογής των δεδομένων (**ΕΠΜ**) ως διαδικασία την οποία ακολουθεί κατά τη διδασκαλία ο μαθητής Τα ευρήματα αυτά σε συνδυασμό με τα δεδομένα της μεταβλητής **ΤΑΔ** στηρίζουν και για την 6η ενότητα την άποψη ότι μέσω των λογοτεχνικών κειμένων και με την καθοδήγηση μιας μορφής αναπαράστασης των δεδομένων μεταξύ της εκφωνούμενης ερώτησης και της απάντησης οι μαθητές καλούνται να ικανοποιήσουν στόχους καλλιέργειας του προφορικού, κυρίως, λόγου με μία κειμενοκεντρική θεώρηση της γλωσσικής διδασκαλίας.

Εφαρμογή της μεθόδου στην Ενότητα 7: Τέχνη, μια γλώσσα για όλους σε όλες τις εποχές
Πίνακας 5: Ανάλυση της διδακτικής διάστασης των λογοτεχνικών κειμένων της 7ης Ενότητας

Α/Α	ΑΡΕ	ΑΡΚ	ΘΣΕ	ΜΔΤ	ΚΜΕ	ΕΙΜ	ΕΠΜ	ΤΑΔ
1	7	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	7	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
3	7	3	1	1	1	2	2	1
4	7	3	1	1	1	4	4	1
5	7	3	2	2	1	1	1	1
6	7	3	2	1	1	2	3	1
7	7	3	2	2	1	1	1	1
8	7	3	2	2	1	1	1	2
9	7	3	2	1	1	1	1	1
10	7	1	2	2	1	1	1	1
11	7	1	2	1	1	4	4	1
12	7	1	2	1	1	4	4	1
13	7	1	2	2	1	1	2	1
14	7	1	2	2	1	1	2	1
15	7	1	2	2	1	1	2	1

Πίνακας 5.1. Συνολικές καταγραφές για την ανάλυση της διδακτικής διάστασης των λογοτεχνικών κειμένων της 7ης Ενότητας

ΕΝΟΤΗΤΑ 7 ΚΑΤΑΓΡΑΦΕΣ: 15	ΑΡΚ	ΘΣΕ		ΜΔΤ		ΚΜΕ	ΕΙΜ			ΕΠΜ			ΤΑΔ	
ΚΕΙΜΕΝΟ	1	2.1	6.2	4.1	4.2	8.1	6.1		2.4	3.1	3.2	2.4	8.1	
ΚΕΙΜΕΝΟ	3	2.1	5.2	4.1	3.2	7.1	4.1	2.2.	1.4	4.1	2.2	1.4	6.1	1.2
ΣΥΝΟΛΟ	2	4.1	11.2	8.1	7.2	15.1	10.1	2.2	3.4	7.1	5.2	3.4	14.1	1.2

Η 7η ενότητα, στην οποία εμπεριέχονται δύο λογοτεχνικά δοκίμια, έχει 15 καταγραφές. Παρατηρείται ισοκατανομή ερωτήσεων/ασκήσεων/δραστηριοτήτων που συνοδεύουν τα δύο κείμενα. Κατατάσσονται κυρίως στην κατηγορία ακούω και μιλώ και εντοπίζονται μόνο δύο καταγραφές για κάθε κείμενο οι οποίες αφορούν ερωτήσεις κατανόησης. Τα λογοτεχνικά κείμενα, επομένως, στοχεύουν στην κατανόηση/καλλιέργεια/παραγωγή προφορικού λόγου. Ως προς τη μορφή διατύπωσης των εργασιών, διαπιστώνεται ισοκατανομή μεταξύ όσων διατυπώνονται με τη μορφή ερώτησης -επομένως επιτρέπουν ευελιξία ως προς τον τρόπο πραγμάτωσης- και όσων αποτελούν πρόταση δραστηριότητας με χρήση προστακτικής - επομένως οροθετούν το πλαίσιο υλοποίησης-. Η διδασκαλία και πάλι ορίζεται ως ατομική (**ΚΜΕ**). Η μεταγνωστική μορφή γνώσης υπερτερεί στις καταγεγραμμένες κλάσεις της ενότητας **ΕΙΜ** και ακολουθούν με πολύ λιγότερες καταγραφές η εννοιολογική και η μεταγνωστική. Ο μαθητής καλείται να ανταποκριθεί στους διδακτικούς στόχους μέσα από τη συλλογή και την οργάνωση δεδομένων και λιγότερο με την ανάλυση και την υπέρβασή τους (**ΕΠΜ**). Για τη μεταβλητή **ΤΑΔ** ισχύουν οι διαπιστώσεις για τα αντίστοιχα ευρήματα των ενοτήτων 3 και 6.

Συμπερασματα
Για το μάθημα της διδασκαλίας της Νεοελληνικής γλώσσας στο Γυμνάσιο αναφορικά με τη διδακτική αξιοποίηση της λογοτεχνίας, η μελέτη των κειμένων ΔΕΠΠΣ-ΑΠΣ, του νέου Προγράμματος Σπουδών, των Εκπαιδευτικών Οδηγιών και του εγχειριδίου του μαθητή (Γ' Γυμνασίου) επιτρέπει τη διατύπωση των εξής διαπιστώσεων:
- Στα ΔΕΠΠΣ και ΑΠΣ δεν υπάρχει ρητή αναφορά αλλά εντοπίζονται άμεσες και έμμεσες εννοιολογικές συνδέσεις με την αξιοποίηση της λογοτεχνίας.
- Οι αρχές του νέου Προγράμματος Σπουδών και οι προτεινόμενες μεθοδολογικές προσεγγίσεις συντάσσονται με τις αντίστοιχες της παιδαγωγικής του γραμματισμού και των πολυγραμματισμών με βάση τα κειμενικά είδη και τοποθετούν τα λογοτεχνικά κείμενα μέσα σε αυτές. Συγκεκριμένες και σαφείς αναφορές βρίσκουμε και στον Οδηγό για τον Εκπαιδευτικό με διδακτικό προσανατολισμό.
- Το σχολικό εγχειρίδιο που μελετήθηκε στην παρούσα εργασία ακολουθεί/αξιοποιεί με συνέπεια τις αρχές της παιδαγωγικής του γραμματισμού με βάση τα κειμενικά είδη και των πολυεγγραμματισμών (Δημάση & Αραβανή, 2013) και μάλιστα με σαφή

προσανατολισμό των κειμένων σε μια διαπολιτισμική στοχοθεσία (Δημάση, 2012).

- Τα λογοτεχνικά κείμενα αξιοποιούνται στο πλαίσιο των γλωσσοδιδακτικών στόχων με έμφαση σε εργασίες που αφορούν τα ειδολογικά χαρακτηριστικά/την κειμενικότητα, και τις συναρτήσεις των κειμένων με την κατά περίπτωση κοινωνικοπολιτισμική τους πλαισίωση.

- Η αναλυτική ταξινόμηση των εργασιών αναδεικνύει τη δυνατότητα αξιοποίησης των λογοτεχνικών κειμένων για την ικανοποίηση στόχων που κινούνται από την πραγματολογική μέχρι τη μεταγνωστική γνώση με ποσοστώσεις εμφάνισης που τεκμηριώνουν την άποψη ότι οι συντάκτες του εγχειριδίου ακολουθούν τις σύγχρονες θέσεις/τάσεις για την αξιοποίηση της λογοτεχνίας στη γλωσσική διδασκαλία, όπως με συντομία αναφερθήκαμε στην εισαγωγή της εργασίας.

- Η διδακτική αξιοποίηση της λογοτεχνίας αποτυπώνεται με πολλαπλότητα στόχων, χωρίς να επικεντρώνεται στην εκμάθηση γλωσσικών (γραμματικών - συντακτικών) κανόνων, αλλά ακολουθώντας προσανατολισμούς προς την κατανόηση, τη λογοτεχνικότητα, τη βιωματικότητα, την καλλιέργεια κριτικής σκέψης και προβληματισμού και την ενεργητική εμπλοκή των μαθητών.

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